The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 31, 1899.

The Week.

A PAINFUL impression will, we think, be produced upon the country by the Bering Sea correspondence—painful because it shows that we have not advanced an inch towards a settlement of the difficulty since Mr. Bayard went out of office, but have rather receded from one which then seemed to be in sight. Another painful circumstance (although this view will not be shared by all) is that the correspondence on our side is so conspicuously Blaineish—that is, so full of twists and dodges—that the nation is bulletined before the world as a pettifogger. It is really difficult to make out from Mr. Blaine's papers what our position is. He holds in one place that seal-catching in open waters is *contra bonos mores*, by which, probably, he means that it is piracy under the law of nations. Lord Salisbury understands that this is the meaning of *contra bonos mores* as used by Mr. Blaine, since anything else that is done *contra bonos mores* on the high seas in time of peace can be punished only by the nation whose ships have been guilty. He accordingly argues against Mr. Blaine that seal-catching is not piracy under the law of nations—a point not difficult to establish. Then Mr. Blaine shifts his ground and tries to maintain that we derived from Russia by purchase exclusive jurisdiction in Bering Sea, and when Lord Salisbury points out that we denied Russia's exclusive jurisdiction before the purchase, quoting the celebrated Adams despatch, Mr. Blaine retorts, in an offensive way, that Lord Salisbury has misquoted the Adams despatch so as to make it "defective, erroneous, and misleading." How far these adjectives are justly applicable may be seen by placing the two in juxtaposition:

Lord Salisbury's quotation from Mr. Adams:

"The United States can admit no part of these claims; their right of navigation and fishing is perfect, and has been in constant exercise from the earliest times throughout the whole extent of the Southern Ocean, subject only to the ordinary exceptions and exclusions of the territorial jurisdictions."

Full text of Mr. Adams's paragraph:

"The United States can admit no part of these claims. Their right of navigation and of fishing is perfect, and has been in constant exercise from the earliest times, after the peace of 1783, throughout the whole extent of the Southern Ocean, subject only to the ordinary exceptions and exclusions of the territorial jurisdictions, which, so far as Russian rights are concerned, are confined to certain islands north of the fifty-fifth degree of latitude, and have no existence on the Continent of America."

Territorial jurisdictions confined to certain islands! What does that mean? It depends, of course, upon the meaning of territorial jurisdiction. If that is, as Lord Salisbury contends, and as Mr. Adams contended, a jurisdiction within three miles of the land, then the omission of the last few lines of the quotation was of no importance whatever. But Mr. Blaine's strong point, and the one which he insists upon to the last, and with a sort of triumph, is that the British Government suspended the negotiation for a time, while Mr. Bayard had it in charge, at the request of the Canadian Government. This would be conclusive on our side if the suspension had been continued. It was perfectly reasonable that the British Government should wait for fresh information from any source. If we had suspended negotiation for a time in order to hear what the Alaska Commercial Company might have to say, and if Great Britain had brought that up as an offence against us, we should have been very much surprised. It is extremely Blaineish, too, to make it an objection that Great Britain has "encouraged" her subjects to commit these acts *contra bonos mores* when the point in dispute is whether the acts are *contra bonos mores* or not. If they are not, then they may be lawfully encouraged, although it does not appear how Great Britain encouraged them except by letting them alone. Upon the whole, we find here much justification of the remark made a few days ago by Senator Frye to Mr. Blaine, viz.: "Your letter leaves me in some doubt as to the facts."

Mr. Blaine has written another letter to Senator Frye in defence of his project of reciprocity with Cuba and the southern portion of the American hemisphere. In reply to Mr. Frye's request for detailed information as to what we might expect from Spain, he points in a general way to the treaty of reciprocity negotiated with Spain by Minister Foster, under the Administration of President Arthur. "Your question surprises me," says Mr. Blaine, "for you cannot have forgotten that only six years ago the Prime Minister of Spain, in his anxiety to secure free admission to our markets for the sugar of Cuba and Porto Rico, agreed to a very extensive treaty with Mr. John W. Foster, then our Minister at Madrid." Leaving Mr. Frye to digest his surprise as he may, we note (and this is a very important matter) that the sugar duties were touched upon in the Senate debate on the McKinley Tariff Bill on Friday, and that Senator Aldrich, who has charge of the bill, said that, whenever the Chairman of the Committee on Appropriations had prepared his statement of the probable expenditures and of the probable receipts, the Finance Committee would take into consideration whether the Senate could afford to make such a large reduction of the duty on sugar. This was in reply to questions put by Senators Plumb and Gorman. The former complained that there had been no detailed statement of receipts and expenditures, and the latter asked Mr. Aldrich to give such a statement approximately. Mr. Aldrich said that if importations were the same as before, the revenue would be reduced about $20,000,000. Mr. McKinley himself had estimated the reduction of revenue from import duties alone at $60,936,536. A discrepancy of $41,000,000 in the two estimates is not to be accounted for by the few changes recommended by the Finance Committee. As to the expenditures Mr. Aldrich could give no information, but he said that his Committee would not create a deficit knowingly. All this tremulousness works in favor of Mr. Blaine's project. If it is ascertained, as seems now most probable, that the revenue from sugar cannot be spared, it will be the shortest way out for the Republican party to say that these duties are reserved temporarily for the purpose of securing reciprocity and a wider market for agricultural products, the real purpose being to avoid a deficit.

After weeks of silence the *Tribune* in its Sunday issue ventured to say something about Mr. Blaine and reciprocity and the sugar duties. What it says, however, is extremely murky and indecisive, as becomes a muzzled newspaper. It thinks that Mr. Blaine must have reasons for the views he has advanced, which he cannot disclose because they are of the diplomatic sort. In other words, the *Tribune* is in exactly the plight of Senator Frye. Mr. Blaine's letters have left it in some doubt as to the facts. If so, Mr. Blaine can hardly be surprised, as he was in Mr. Frye's case, because he knows that muzzled newspapers are always in doubt. On one point, however, the *Tribune* is free from doubt. It sees that the sugar duties have a close relation to the autumn elections, and that the Republican leaders are going to vote with Mr. Blaine or against him, according as they may consider their own seats in Congress affected thereby. It is thus possible that they may agree with Mr. Blaine in principle, but oppose him in practice. Finally, it says that Congress and the Administration must be brought into harmonious relations on these national and continental issues. This is a perfectly safe position for a muzzled newspaper to take. The only wonder is that the *Tribune* was so long in finding it.

Congressman Butterworth is reported to have in mind an intention to ask Congress to postpone final action on the McKinley Tariff Bill till the next session, in order that its danger of acting as a complete bar for foreign exhibitors at the Chicago World's Fair may be averted. He has been informed by the managers of the Fair that the success of it is imperilled by the fact that foreigners will not think of asking for space while they are threatened with the passage of a bill which is framed for the avowed purpose of excluding from the country the goods which they might wish to exhibit. Just how postponement will improve the outlook, Mr. Butterworth does not say. The idea that unsuspecting foreigners

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could be beguiled by postponement into taking space for exhibits, and that, after we had got them pledged to show their goods, we could clap on prohibitive duties and they could not escape the obligation to display their wares in a market in which they could not hope to sell them, is too childish for any one to entertain seriously. A World's Fair which should depend for its international character upon a cheap trick like that would not rise above the level of a Wanamaker Bargain Counter.

The price of silver has receded a fraction from its highest point since the new Silver Act was signed by the President. Apparently the speculation due to the action of Congress has exhausted itself. Very likely some of the governments of Europe have availed themselves of the opportunity to "unload," but if they have done so, they would keep the matter as secret as possible. Probably the future course of the market will be downward, because the advance of 10 per cent. in the price that has taken place must stimulate the production everywhere. But it is a mistake to suppose that the "goldbugs" are dismayed or disappointed by the advance. Nothing that could happen would please them so much as to see silver advance to $1.29 per ounce, when our legal ratio of sixteen to one would be reestablished. They would not be sorry to see it go even higher. Anything which should deliver us from the everlasting turmoil about silver would be eagerly welcomed.

Mr. Leech, Director of the Mint, speaking of the new Silver Act, says in the first place that the purchases of silver will be made in accordance with the letter and spirit of the bill. They will be 4,500,000 ounces per month. Of this there has never been any doubt in any rational mind, although some of the extreme silverites in the Senate pretended to doubt it when they were trying to defeat the conference report on the bill. Next Mr. Leech thinks that the new act "will expand the volume of money in circulation" more than the former law did. The reasons he gives for this belief are two in number: (1) that the new Treasury notes are full legal tender, and (2) that these notes are actually paid out for bullion, whereas under the old law the payments were made out of money in the Treasury, *i.e.*, by checks on the Sub-Treasury. Both of these reasons are, in our judgment, fallacious. The legal-tender character of the new Treasury notes gives them no advantage over the silver certificates for purposes of circulation, unless it can be shown that some people somewhere are in the habit of refusing to take silver certificates. No such instance can be found. As to the second reason, it is easy to see that the sellers of bullion will deposit their Treasury notes in the banks, and the banks will meet the Sub-Treasury the next day at the Clearing-house, and will turn in for redemption all that are not wanted for purposes of circulation—all that commerce has no demand for. Whether this latter sum will be greater or less, nobody can tell in advance of the experiment, but it is certain that the sponge when full will hold no more of one kind of currency than of the other kind when both are at par with gold.

Minnesota and Nebraska are two of the strongest Republican States in the West, which is the stronghold of the Republican party. Each of them always gives a thumping majority for the Republican candidate in every Presidential campaign. In 1888 Nebraska cast 108,425 votes for Harrison, against 80,552 for Cleveland; while in Minnesota the Republican candidate received 142,492 votes, against only 104,385 for the Democratic nominee. Republican State Conventions were held in each of these States on Thursday. The preliminary canvasses had been full of interest, and the conventions were largely attended. It was consequently assured in advance that the convention in each State would be fairly representative of party sentiment in the State, and that the platforms would correctly reflect the attitudes of Republicans in two strongly Republican States towards the issues of the day. Each convention adopted a long platform, and there is no lack of words as to the position of the party in either State towards the tariff issue, the silver question, and the matter of pensions, as well as regarding other questions which are up for public discussion. For example, each platform has a plank regarding the need of ballot reform, and calls for the adoption by the Legislature of the Australian system. But as to one issue each platform is absolutely silent, and it is what the bloody-shirt leaders have declared to be *the* issue of the day. Neither in the Minnesota platform nor in the Nebraska one is there a single word in favor of the Force Bill, which is now before the Senate.

This is a slap in the face to the bloody-shirt faction, and will do much to swell the rising tide of opposition to their policy among the Republican members of the Senate. When State conventions meet in two of the strongest Republican States in the Union, and each of them refuses to say a word in favor of the Force Bill, nobody can any longer keep up the pretence that the party demands its passage. Senator Paddock of Nebraska has already announced his opposition to the scheme, and the course of Thursday's Convention at Lincoln shows that the Republicans of his State wish both of their Senators to vote against the bill. Senator Washburn of Minnesota was quoted the other day as saying that the people in his part of the country have no interest in the Force Bill; and the action—or rather the non-action—of Thursday's Convention at St. Paul shows that he was entirely right. Moreover, the attitude of these two conventions towards this question shows that such leading Republican newspapers as the Omaha *Bee* in Nebraska and the St. Paul *Pioneer Press* in Minnesota have correctly represented the sentiments of the party in their earnest opposition to the Force Bill. In view of all this, how humiliating is the position of the muzzled organs, like the New York *Tribune* and the Philadelphia *Press*, which meekly followed the orders of Chairman Belden and called for the passage of this odious measure!

The memorial against the passage of the Force Bill which is being signed by the Republicans of Alabama, under the leadership of ex-Gov. Smith, is a document of much force. One objection to the law which is made prominent is the fact that its enforcement in any locality is made to depend upon the petition of a number of citizens, and the petitioners are "put in the position of accusing their neighbors of dishonesty and fraud, which will be resented, and, in all probability, end in strife and bloodshed, and the fault of such disgraceful scenes will be all that of this law. In our State," says the memorial, "where we have not only differences in politics, but difference in races, this law, by its means of enforcement, as described above, may lead to a race conflict, and thus imperil our present grand industrial system, which is just starting on its career of unequalled progress." The argument that, unless the law passes, the negro cannot vote and have his vote counted fairly, is thus disposed of: "In the districts in this State, such as the northern part, where the negro is in the minority, his vote is counted fairly, and hence there is no need for the law. In the districts of the middle and southern parts, where the negro is largely in the majority, if, after a quarter of a century of freedom and access to all fields of wealth and learning, he is not able to command the respect of his fellow white man, he is then practically a small element in our political fabric, and not of sufficient importance to justify a hazardous experiment in our Government."

The final objection to the bill presented in the memorial is one that ought to have great weight with the men who are pushing the Force Bill. They assert that such a measure is needed to strengthen the Republican party in the South. On the other hand, ex-Gov. Smith and his fellow-Republicans of Alabama insist that "the passage of this bill into a law, instead of strengthening the Republican party in the State, will destroy the better element of it and drive away the great independent vote that is coming out all over the State." This is the opinion also of such other authorities among the Southern Republicans as the *Valley Virginian* of Staunton, Va., Congressman Ewart of North Carolina, and Congressman Coleman of Louisiana, who certainly ought to know better what is good for them than Northern men like "Bill" Chandler and Henry Cabot Lodge.

Georgia is in a state of ferment. The farmers, under the leadership of L. F. Livingston, who has for three or four years been actively engaged in organizing "alliances," are spreading dismay among the lawyers who now represent the State in Congress. Mr. Stewart of the Atlanta district has withdrawn from the race, as the primaries disclosed the immense popularity

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of Livingston, who started out as a candidate for the House, but who is now aspiring to succeed Mr. Brown in the Senate. Gov. Gordon is so anxious for this honor that he has laid himself open to the suspicion of demagogy, having subscribed to the platform of the new party and advocated the boycott silliness. Mr. Grimes of the Columbus district has been defeated by Charles L. Moses, the farmers' candidate, and all of the other members except Messrs. Turner, Candler, and Crisp are in danger of defeat. The straightforward, manly manner in which the Georgia Representatives have condemned the class legislation demanded by the farmers cannot be too highly commended. Anxious to continue in their Congressional career, they have nevertheless deliberately invited defeat by prompt and vigorous condemnation of the absurdities now so rife at home. But the severest rebuke yet given to those who are urging the advocacy of the Sub-Treasury scheme as a condition of political support has come from one of their own members—from Mr. R. E. Park of Macon. In declining the request of the Alliance to announce himself as a candidate for Congress, Mr. Park suggests that the advocates of this wild plan should be a little modest when they confront the fact that it "has been condemned by the most enlightened and purest statesmen of the whole country, and has not the sanction of a single man of eminence as a political thinker or of large experience as a legislator." The movement to exclude lawyers and other professional men from the great employments of trust and honor, he pronounces an instigation of aspirants for office whose only hope of political preferment is the supposed gullibility and prejudices of the people. Their success, he assures the farmers, will be only temporary, and their downfall complete and humiliating.

Quay's campaign in Pennsylvania this year is evidently to depend on the corrupt Senator's "smartness" in stealing and turning away votes from his opponents rather than on any open work or real discussion of questions of the day. One of his devices has already come to light in the coal regions, where he has begun to start little newspapers in the assumed interest of the labor cause, which are to advocate with loud cries the nomination of labor candidates for Congress and the Legislature in every district where the number of wage-earners is large. In this way he hopes to keep the vote of the laborers from being concentrated on the Democratic candidates. This is really encouraging news, for it confirms the reports of the friendliness of the miners towards Pattison, and indicates that Powderly's open denunciation of Quay has alarmed that demagogue. His attempt to start a "back-fire" by the use of hirelings to pose as friends of the laborers will have a very poor chance for success this year. Any device nowadays that comes from Quay bears a stamp of fraud on its face, and he will find that it is a hundred times easier to expose and checkmate him now than it was before he was held up to the country as a public thief.

In an article entitled "Summing up the Tariff Discussion" in the July number of the *North American Review* (page 55), Mr. Andrew Carnegie says:

> "Mr. Blaine has shown that in the case of steamship lines she [England] will permit no foreign steamship to compete even for carrying the mails. On the contrary, when the Postmaster-General of England had closed an arrangement with the North German Lloyd which gave much better service upon more favorable terms than the English lines had it in their power to give, Parliament promptly compelled him to forego the arrangement."

Anything that Mr. Blaine has shown is probably misleading. What Mr. Carnegie has shown in this case is not true. The North German Lloyd steamers carried the British mails from Southampton to New York for ten years, as was stated in Mr. Gustav Schwab's recent pamphlet on 'Shipping and Subsidies.' Of course, the Cunard and White Star Companies were very much opposed to this, and they used all their influence to prevent the North German Lloyd from getting a new contract when the old one expired. In 1886 the British Postmaster-General awarded a contract to the latter company for three months, in pursuance of a circular calling for tenders for that period of time. Parliament never interfered or took any notice of the matter one way or the other. The Cunard and White Star Companies, however, had a "pull," which enabled them to prevent the renewal of the contract after its expiration.

The last stage of the Harrison cottage case is a very awkward one for Mr. Wanamaker and his ten or more Philadelphia friends who had the cottage built at Cape May and presented it to the President's wife. They are in the position of compelling the President to buy a house in order to get himself out of a predicament into which they had plunged him. If they should have imitators, the President might be ruined financially by being forced to buy whatever anybody might take it into his head to present to Mrs. Harrison. If they had been confidence operators, they could not have proceeded more ingeniously than they did to "unload" this cottage on the President. They kept their purpose entirely secret until the cottage was built, furnished, and stocked with provisions. Then they slipped quietly into the White House, while the President was at luncheon, and presented his wife with the deed and the keys before he had time to say Jack Robinson. Then they induced the Presidential family to go down and try the cottage, and got Mrs. Harrison to say in an interview that it was a "gift" from them to her. After that the President had nothing to do but buy the house at the Wanamaker price. It was a very sharp trick for a Presbyterian Sunday-school superintendent to practise upon an elder in his own church.

Any one who was disposed to take a humorous view of the political situation in England might find materials for a good deal of mirth in figuring to himself what the Tories would be now saying had Mr. Gladstone been retained in office in 1886, and had the London letter-carriers and police struck and the Guards mutinied in the fourth year of his Ministry. How, like Squire Smalley, they would have "covered their faces and turned away," and heaped maledictions on his head, and said they always knew he would ruin England and break up the framework of society: even the Grenadier Guards could not stand him — the crack regiment of the British Army had refused to obey orders under his debauching rule. And suppose in the midst of this disorder they had caught the old rascal ceding British territory to a foreign Power during profound peace! A more impressive illustration of the imposture of Toryism than British politics presents at this moment history does not contain.

The appointment of a new Prussian Finance Minister, Miquel, in place of Von Scholz, who had filled the place for eight years, naturally excites much discussion in the German press, and is regarded as foreboding change of some sort, but of what sort nobody seems to know. The retiring Minister, although a man of great ability, had never shown any independence, but had entirely subordinated himself to Bismarck, carrying out with great thoroughness the extreme protectionist policy of the late Chancellor; his successor has a great reputation as a parliamentarian, has been the leader of the National-Liberals, and is considered by all parties as an important factor in the near future. Dr. Barth, the editor of the Berlin *Nation*, in a recent article on Miquel, says that he must very soon become the soul of the Ministry, and will doubtless be the chief parliamentary spokesman of the Government; that he is free from prejudices, and conscious of his mission as a reform Minister, but that he is placed in a position of great difficulty, and in his endeavors, as an eclectic politician, to please all parties, will satisfy none. Dr. Barth sums up by warning his friends, the so-called *Freisinnige* party, to reduce to a modest measure their expectations of the reforms to be effected by the new Finance Minister. In regard to tariff reform in particular, he remarks that it must be carried against the opposition of powerful and strongly intrenched interests, while the classes whom reform is to benefit are pecuniarily weak. It is curious to notice, by the way, that the new Minister is of French extraction, which is also the case with the Minister of War, while the German Chancellor is of Italian. This species of cosmopolitanism is quite foreign to the German spirit, but is not without precedent in other countries. Thus, France had a Minister of English descent (Waddington), and for more than a century Irish adventurers have held high military and civil places on the continent of Europe, as witness the O'Donnells of Spain and Austria and MacMahon in France.

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THE ALLIANCE MOVEMENT.

THE Farmers' Alliance, North and South, seems likely to have considerable influence in the autumn elections. Nobody can now predict how much mischief it may do to the great political parties, or how this mischief will be distributed between them. That the Alliance can have any permanent existence, or can ever accomplish what it aims at, is simply impossible. Its aims, so far as they have been formulated, include the following:

(1.) The Sub-Treasury Bill so called, being a project for the Government to take farm products on storage and advance legal-tender notes on them to the producers. This is the prevailing Alliance craze in the South.

(2.) Abolition of the Supreme Court, abolition of laws for the collection of debts, the seizure of railroad property in behalf of "the people," the revaluation of mortgages, and the defeat of Ingalls. These are among the avowed projects of the Alliance in Kansas, or in Minnesota, or in both.

It is unnecessary to say that we have no sympathy with any of these pranks, not even with the defeat of Ingalls if it is designed to bring into his place anybody representing any part of the political programme here sketched. It is a part of the tasks of journalism, however, to "keep the run" of all kinds of organized voting movements, and we have accordingly noted the following facts relating to the spread of the Alliance. It should be stated that the declarations of the Alliance are more rational in some parts of the country than those specially enumerated above.

In Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, Tennessee, and Texas the farmers, under one of the several designations by which they are known, are very active. In Tennessee they have, for the first time in the history of the State, made themselves felt as a political power. Although they did not come together until August, 1888, they have made such effective use of their time and opportunities since as to have captured the Democratic State Convention at Nashville and nominated their man for Governor. In Alabama the old-line Democrats have sought self-preservation in the same way. Col. Thomas Hardman, their candidate for Governor, has withdrawn from the canvass, leaving the field clear for Col. W. J. Northern, the Alliance candidate. Judge "Jim" Brown, a brother of Senator "Joe" Brown of Georgia, who hoped to enter Congress as the regular Democratic Representative from the Ninth District, has given way to an Alliance man. Gov. Gordon, a candidate for Senator Brown's seat, sought to make his calling and election sure with the Legislature that the Alliance hopes to elect by subscribing some time ago to its numerous and whimsical articles of faith. The Democrats of Missouri have, in a measure, followed the example of their brethren in Alabama. At their recent State Convention they surrendered to the Alliance the Railroad and Warehouse Commissionership and the Superintendency of Public Instruction. In Arkansas, however, it is the Republicans who have decided to cast their fortunes with the Alliance, having endorsed Mr. Fitzer, its Gubernatorial candidate. But nowhere else, even in the West, have they followed this example.

In the Carolinas the Democrats have not been willing to give up their party identity or surrender their political principles. As a consequence, they are engaged in one of the most bitter contests ever known in those States. There being no Governor or other State officers to elect in North Carolina as in South Carolina, Alabama, and Tennessee, the battle is for the Congressional delegation, for the State Legislature, and for county and other local offices. Having refused to endorse the Sub-Treasury Bill, Senator Vance is no longer fitted, in the estimation of the Alliance men, to represent the State of North Carolina at Washington, and if they can elect enough members of the Legislature, they propose to displace him. Those members of Congress who, like Mr. Vance, refuse to sign the pledge that the Alliance has sent each one of them, will be similarly treated. The same policy is being pursued in Georgia, where it is believed that eight of the ten members of Congress from that State will be retired. But the bitterest contest anywhere waged is in South Carolina. There the Democrats are moving heaven and earth to prevent the nomination of Tillman. They are striving, too, with all their might to save as many members of Congress as possible.

The farmers of the Eastern and Middle States have not, as in other States, taken up the agitation. The Alliance has hardly obtained a foothold in New York or in Pennsylvania. The only State in New England where it has made headway is Connecticut. In the Western States, however, the movement is widespread and earnest. Here, as in the South, it was non-political at first, even the discussion of political questions having been prohibited. But this restriction has now been removed, and with it has come a contest for political supremacy.

In Michigan, Ohio, and Iowa there is still some question as to the wisdom of plunging into politics, and conventions will soon be held in each of these States to decide upon a course of action. But there is little doubt that in Michigan a State ticket will be nominated. The Alliance there is well organized, and Mr. Partridge, its President, has already announced that he is a candidate for Governor. In Ohio the farmers have been more reluctant to break away from party ties; only 300 alliances have thus far been organized, but even this small number is attracting the attention of the politicians of the old parties. Less conservative than their Ohio brethren, the Iowa farmers have organized nearly 1,700 alliances, 500 of which have come into existence within the past six months. In Illinois the Alliance has been still more active; it has been in operation for three years, and, according to the Chicago *Times*, it has a membership of 80,000, and is actively engaged in putting forward legislative and Congressional candidates. It will hold no State convention and make no State nominations. In Nebraska a State convention will soon be held in obedience to the Alliance petitions, which bore nearly 40,000 signatures, and a State ticket will be named. The Alliance ticket has already been named in South Dakota and in Minnesota, where the farmers have for the first time in the history of the State taken independent political action. This ticket is before the people, and nominations for Congress are in progress.

The situation that most resembles the campaign in South Carolina exists in Kansas. Such momentum has the movement acquired there that 2,500 sub-alliances have been organized with a reputed membership of 290,000. A State ticket has not yet been put in the field, but a convention for the purpose of naming candidates will meet next month. County, legislative, and Congressional nominations are, however, being made, the Alliance giving especial attention to the Legislature. The Alliance is determined to prevent the reëlection of Senator Ingalls if possible. It has already made twenty-three nominations for the Legislature, and in each case compelled the candidate to pledge himself to vote against Ingalls. As in North Carolina, the farmers believe that they are the salt of the earth. Lawyers they regard as one of the causes of their troubles, and they refuse to nominate any member of the profession even for a judicial position.

While in the South the Democrats most fear the Alliance, in the West the Republicans are most threatened. The single exception is Indiana, where many Democratic farmers have become imbued with the belief of their brethren in the South, that they have more to gain by independent political action than by loyalty to their old party. Although some Democrats have joined the movement in Michigan, Wisconsin, Illinois, Ohio, Iowa, Nebraska, and Kansas, by far the greater part of Alliance men in those States are Republicans.

THE SUGAR TRUST REORGANIZATION.

THE trustees of the Sugar Refineries Company, otherwise called the Sugar Trust, have issued a circular to the holders of their certificates, proposing that a plan of reorganization be formed "for the purpose of protecting the property and promoting the interests of the certificate-holders." No particular plan of reorganization is suggested. Indeed, they say that the responsibility of forming a plan does not rest with them, but that they are willing to give the certificate-holders the benefit of their experience and information, and to render all the assistance in their power. Certificate-holders who favor this proposition, and who desire to coöperate with the trustees in some plan of reorganization, may transfer their certificates to the Central Trust Company of New York, which will issue its own certificates, "which will be negotiable with the same facility as the present certificates of the Sugar Refineries Company."

This circular professes to deal with property

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of the nominal value of $50,000,000, and of the selling value of more than $35,000,000. It is signed by some of the richest men and by one of the ablest lawyers in New York. It aims to find a solution of a question of vast concern, which has been passed upon by three public tribunals, including the Court of Appeals. It therefore challenges public examination.

The first thing to be noted is that the holders of this $35,000,000 worth of property are asked, or rather allowed, to put their holdings out of their own control in order that some kind of future disposition may be made of them. What that disposition may be is not stated or even remotely hinted, for the reason evidently that the signers of the circular do not know. They do not know that any plan can be formed. What position any certificate-holder would be in who had deposited his certificate and taken the Central Trust Company's receipt in place of it, if no plan should be formed, or if the plan formed were not satisfactory to him, is left to the realms of conjecture. The only thing promised in such a case is that the receipt he gets will be negotiable "with the same facility" as the certificate he now holds. Even this promise is subject to qualification, unless the Stock Exchange allows new-fangled securities to be dealt in on its floor at the option of the owner of the securities, which, we believe, is not the case. One of the "facilities" of negotiability attaching to the present certificates is that of being dealt in on the Exchange, although they are not on the regular list. Suppose that only one certificate-holder deposits his holding with the Central Trust Company, does it follow that he can, of his own motion, have the receipt that he gets for it sold and resold on the Stock Exchange? But this is a minor consideration.

The signers of the circular having left the public in the dark as to the plan of reorganization, or the possibility of one—and evidently because they are themselves in the dark—it is incumbent on the certificate-holders to investigate the important questions involved for themselves. The Trust certificates are aliquot parts of a mass of amalgamated stocks of certain incorporated companies, whose shares are bunched together and locked up in a safe. Each certificate is a claim upon all the shares of all the companies to the extent of its own nominal or face value.

Judge Barrett held that one of these amalgamated companies, the North River Sugar Refining Company, had violated the law of its being by joining in a conspiracy to create a monopoly. The General Term of the Supreme Court sustained Judge Barrett, and held further that the company had committed suicide by transferring all its powers to another company. The Court of Appeals held that the company had committed suicide as aforesaid, but declined, for the present, to say whether the monopoly feature was of itself sufficient to work a dissolution of the company, since a decision upon that point was not necessary. It follows that the decisions of the General Term and of Judge Barrett are in force, neither of them having been overruled, although taken before the court of last resort. Some words in the opinion rendered by the Court of Appeals have been considered to sustain the view that these companies might have been legally consolidated. Such words, even if they can be considered to apply to companies already wrongfully amalgamated, have not the force of law, and were not intended to have. They constitute at most a dictum, while the judgment in the lower courts is a decision in its broadest extent until overruled.

The North River Company was put in the hands of a receiver, who still holds it. Of course all the other companies are liable to the same treatment. A suit in anticipation of such treatment has been begun by the trustees of the Sugar Trust as individuals, the object being to get all the amalgamated companies put in the hands of a friendly receiver, except the one company whose case has already been adjudicated. We shall not anticipate the course of this legal proceeding, but it is plain to the common understanding that any plan, whether favored by the friendly receiver or not, which has for its aim the consolidation of these sugar-refineries so as to bring about a monopoly essentially like, or corresponding to, the Trust, will run against Judge Barrett's decision, and will be brought low by the encounter. There are other difficulties of a more technical character to be surmounted. What place, for example, will, or can, the North River Company have in the proposed consolidation? Shall the Attorney-General, after having taken this property out of the "combine," on the express ground that it had joined in a conspiracy to promote a monopoly, surrender it again to the uses of monopoly under another name? Can the certificates of the existing Trust be judicially separated from the North River Company so that all the other companies can be amalgamated without that one? Can the holders of the Trust certificates who may not assent to a plan which has not been explained to them, be restrained from appealing to the courts of law on their own account? Can the Attorney-General be restrained from going on as he has begun and putting all the companies where the North River Company now is? These are questions which will need to be answered before any reorganization can take place under the initiative of the trustees of the Sugar Trust.

INFLATION OF THE CURRENCY.

The Boston *Transcript* is of the opinion that the new Silver Act contains the elements of "inflation of the currency." It says:

"The law explicitly provides for the issuance of Treasury notes in payment of the Government purchases of silver bullion, which notes are to be a legal tender for all public and private debts. These notes are redeemable in either gold or silver coin, at the discretion of the Secretary of the Treasury, and may, subsequent to redemption and under certain limitations, be afterwards reissued. As these Treasury notes, being a legal-tender currency, will serve all the functions of money, we are inclined to think they will be greatly preferred by the public, on account of considerations of convenience, to the coin dollars in which they are redeemable. A considerable amount, therefore, of the Treasury notes will, it is probable, remain in the hands of the people, and, to that extent, will constitute an addition to the existing volume of the currency of the country."

That the views here expressed by the *Transcript* are widely held is not to be doubted. We have received dozens of communications conveying the same ideas, and we choose the *Transcript's* article as a convenient text for stating our own. We observe, in the first place, that there is no definition, either in the *Transcript's* article or in any other article or communication that we have seen, of the phrase "inflation of the currency." Senator Sherman, in a recent speech, read a paper showing that the currency of the country had increased $600,000,000 in ten years. The same table is given on page 222 of Mr. D. A. Wells's 'Recent Economic Changes.' There can be no doubt about the facts, nor can there be any doubt that the rate of currency increase was more than double the rate of increase of population during the ten years. Probably the *Transcript*, if it had been asked at the beginning of the period whether an increase of $600,000,000 in the currency in the ensuing ten years would not be "inflation," would have said yes. We are now in a position favorable for looking backward, and we can ask whether it *was* inflation. If anybody says that it was, he is bound to tell us what are the signs, indications, and concomitants of inflation. How do we know that inflation exists at any time? What is the touchstone that enables us to distinguish inflation from non-inflation?

The most obvious token of inflation would be a rise in the prices of commodities, but Mr. Wells tells us, and indeed proves, that this ten-year period, when the currency increased $600,000,000, was a period of declining prices, perhaps the most remarkable decade in our history in that regard. So this test fails. Is there any other? And if there is no other, what evidence have we now that a farther increase of the currency would be inflation?

In our opinion there can be no such thing as inflation of a currency redeemable in gold. We are not unmindful that this is a disputed question among economists, but it is certain that a majority of them hold that inflation on a gold basis is impossible. If the question could be settled by authority, it would be settled in a sense contrary to the *Transcript's* idea. But mere authority is not generally accepted in such matters. We will, therefore, look for a moment into the reason of the thing. We are embarrassed at the outset by not knowing what the advocates of the inflation theory mean by inflation. It is, perhaps, fair to say that they mean the getting of more money of one kind and another into circulation than the people really need for the transaction of their business. If this is what they mean, it may properly be asked how they know that there is too much at any given time. This question is not to be answered by counting heads. Business requires more money at some times than at other times, population remaining the same. Thus, the year 1885 was a slack one in point of commercial activity. There was an excess of currency,

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and the proof of the excess was that it went into retirement. It took refuge in the vaults of the banks until there was a surplus reserve in New York alone of about $60,000,000. By and by business revived; in the language of the Street, "money became active." The sixty millions found their way out of the bank vaults, much to the satisfaction of the bankers. If there was inflation of the currency at either of these periods, it must have been at the time the sixty millions were lying idle, since there was at that time more currency in existence than any profitable use could be found for. Yet nobody at that time would have called the stagnant period a period of inflation. Stagnation and inflation are the opposite poles of the business world. But can it be said that the second period, when the sixty millions of idle money found its way back into business channels, was a period of inflation? There was the same amount of currency in the one period as in the other, the only difference being as to the place where it was to be found.

Now, what is the operation of the new law? There is absolutely nothing in this law as to the getting of money into circulation which is different from the old law that it supersedes. Names are changed, and there are some variations in the machinery, and there is a heavier pull on the public Treasury, the latter resolving itself into more taxation than would otherwise be necessary, for if the Secretary spends more money for bullion, he will have less with which to buy and cancel interest-bearing bonds. The new Treasury notes are to be legal tender. They are to be paid out for bullion and to be redeemed on demand. There is just enough of shifting and turning of the kaleidoscope to change the aspect of things, but the essence is not changed one whit. There is a public declaration that it is the established policy of the United States to maintain gold and silver on a parity with each other at the legal ratio, but this public declaration merely confirms a preëxisting practice and does not change the practical effect of the silver comedy. To suppose that the public are going to take and *retain* more of the new Treasury notes than of the old silver certificates, both being of the same value identically and answering the same purposes, is idle in the extreme. The Chicago *Times* points out the remarkable difference between the new law and the old one, that

> "When the owners of 54,000,000 ounces of silver bullion sell it to the Government in the course of a year, they get, say, $60,000,000, and possibly $70,000,000, new notes for the bullion. That amount, whatever it may be, is so much *added to the volume of the currency.* The people do not use their own money to buy it with after it is printed. They buy it with commodities. Those who first get it buy it with the commodity silver bullion. Those who get it afterwards buy it with whatever kinds of commodities the holders of the notes buy from them. If the volume of currency is not increased in that way, how, pray, can it be increased? It is true that the new notes may displace an equal amount in gold and drive it out of the country, but that has nothing to do with the question whether the bill *will increase the circulation in the first instance.*"

Neither seventy millions nor one million will be "added to the volume of the currency" unless it is actually needed for currency purposes, and if so needed it will not be inflation. The "first instance" of an increase of the circulation beyond the actual wants of the business community will be signalled to the Secretary by the demand of the seller of the bullion for the redemption of the Treasury notes simultaneously with the delivery of the bullion. If the Secretary redeems them in silver coin, the seller will then demand the redemption of the silver coin in gold coin. And he will get the gold coin unless the new law and the whole fabric of the United States finance tumble all together.

MISSISSIPPI'S PROBLEM.

MISSISSIPPI held on Tuesday an election which was of far more than State concern. It was for the choice of delegates to a convention which is to meet in Jackson a fortnight hence to frame a new constitution for the State. A review of the situation seems peculiarly appropriate at a time when the Force Bill and the general question of Southern elections are being discussed throughout the country.

Mississippi had the most stormy experience of all the Southern States during the reconstruction period. One natural reason was the fact that the State was the home of Jefferson Davis. Another was the fact that the negroes largely outnumbered the whites, the first national census after the war showing 444,201 blacks to 382,896 whites. William L. Sharkey was appointed provisional Governor June 13, 1865, and soon issued a proclamation for a convention, which met at Jackson on the 14th of August. On the following day Gov. Sharkey received a telegram from President Johnson expressing his gratification that the Convention had been organized without difficulty, and giving this advice as to its action:

> "I hope that without delay your Convention will amend your State Constitution, abolishing slavery and denying to all future legislatures the power to legislate that there is property in man; also that they will adopt the amendment to the Constitution of the United States abolishing slavery. If you could extend the elective franchise to all persons of color who can read the Constitution of the United States in English and write their names, and to all persons of color who own real estate valued at not less than $250 and pay taxes thereon, you would completely disarm the adversary and set an example the other States will follow. This you can do with perfect safety, and you thus place the Southern States, in reference to free persons of color, upon the same basis with the free States. I hope and trust your Convention will do this."

Apropos of this telegram from Andrew Johnson in the summer of 1865, it is well to recall the letter touching upon the same question of negro suffrage which Abraham Lincoln, in the spring of 1864, sent to the Governor of Mississippi's next-door neighbor. Writing, under date of March 13, 1864, to Michael Hahn, Mr. Lincoln, after congratulating him upon having "fixed your name in history as the first free-State Governor of Louisiana," said:

> "Now you are about to have a convention, which, among other things, will probably define the elective franchise. I barely suggest, for your private consideration, whether some of the colored people may not be let in, as, for instance, the very intelligent, and especially those who have fought gallantly in our ranks. They would probably help, in some trying time to come, to keep the jewel of liberty in the family of freedom. But this is only a suggestion, not to the public, but to you alone."

Within a week after its assembling, the Convention of August, 1865, had passed an ordinance declaring that slavery should not thereafter exist in the State, and another declaring the secession ordinance null and void. An election for State and county officers and for representatives in Congress was ordered for the first Monday in October, and the Legislature then chosen met on the 16th of the latter month. The colored citizens had already taken alarm, and at a convention, October 7, adopted resolutions protesting against the reactionary policy which prevailed, and expressing the fear that the Legislature would pass such proscriptive laws as would drive the freedmen from the State, or practically reënslave them. These apprehensions were fully justified by the event, as the Legislature adopted one of the worst of the "black codes"; refused to ratify the amendment to the United States Constitution abolishing slavery; adopted memorials to Congress for the pardon of Jefferson Davis and Jacob Thompson; and did sundry other equally foolish things.

Under the State Government thus inaugurated the reactionary drift was perhaps more marked than anywhere else in the South, and when in 1867 the Republican Congress insisted upon its plan of reconstruction, it was opposed in Mississippi more bitterly than in any other State. Finally, after vicissitudes too tedious to recapitulate, a convention controlled by men loyal to the new order of things framed a constitution under which the State has lived for more than twenty years. The most important features of this constitution, so far as the present problem is concerned, are those which declare that all citizens of the United States resident within the State are citizens of the State, and that no property or educational qualifications shall ever be required for electors, and that this latter provision should not be amended before the year 1885. Lincoln had suggested to the Louisiana loyalists in 1864 the idea of allowing "the very intelligent" of the colored people to enjoy the elective franchise, and Johnson had advised the Mississippians in 1865 to extend the franchise to such of the race as could read and write and possessed a little property. The Southern whites rejected both suggestions, and finally had to accept the theory of suffrage for every negro, whether he knew anything or not, whether he owned anything or not, and in Mississippi's case with the key turned in the lock that forbade any change in the system for nearly twenty years.

We all know how different practice has been from theory. At first, indeed, the black majority, officered by white carpet-baggers, had their way, and the Republicans controlled State offices, Legislature, and Congressional districts. But the white minority steadily grew in power, and in 1875, by the adoption of what came to be known as "the Mississippi plan," carried all but one of the Congressional districts and both branches of the Legislature, and persuaded the Republican Governor to resign by threats of im-

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peachment. Since then they "have had everything their own way," the present Governor having been elected without any opposition, while the Democrats have every seat in the Senate and all but seven of the 120 in the House.

As State and local officers are chosen in the odd years, the Force Bill, which applies only to the elections in even years at which Congressmen are chosen, could not help the negroes to recover their rights to a share in the government of the State and counties. The white minority have no fear lest they can continue to carry elections by the same methods as in the past, but they want to find some other way. For some years there has been a growing feeling that an earnest effort ought to be made to devise a legal and just system for getting rid of the ignorant negro vote. Thoughtful men have recognized that the present policy of bulldozing and cheating cannot be permanent, and ought not to be permanent, since it is bound to demoralize the whites as well as the blacks. The Constitutional Convention which meets next month is the outgrowth of this feeling.

Various plans for limiting the suffrage have been proposed and are now under discussion. What is desired is one which will cut off most of the negroes from the suffrage, and at the same time will not disfranchise any considerable number of whites—and this is a difficult result to secure. An educational qualification, for example, would rule out probably three-fourths of the blacks, but it would also take the ballot from one-tenth of the whites, including many ex-Confederate soldiers, and the "soldier vote" is as much a source of dread in the South as in the North. A property qualification would work in much the same way. The idea of a poll-tax was popular until it was pointed out that the Virginia Democrats had tried this device for getting rid of the negro vote, only to find that Mahone got rich Republicans up North to contribute money to pay the poll-taxes of the negroes, while many of the whites could not or would not pay their own.

The Vicksburg *Commercial Herald*, one of the leading newspapers, is urging with much force a novel plan which it has devised. The situation, it says, is this: "A large portion of the population of this State is so densely ignorant that it must be prevented from ruling by some means, or our lives, liberties, and property will not be safe, and our civilization will be blighted." The proportion of this ignorance is much greater in some counties than in others; in Issaquena, for example, with a dozen negroes to every white, the *Herald* thinks that there are twelve ignorant voters to one intelligent. These differing conditions it would meet by a constitutional provision excluding from the suffrage "persons so very ignorant as to prevent their having reasonably safe judgment of measures to be voted on, or being reasonable judges of the fitness of candidates for office"; and providing for an examination of all persons desirous of voting by three officials in each county, appointed by a board of State officers, which county boards shall decide whether applicants are qualified for the suffrage, subject to appeal to the State board and from that to the Supreme Court. "In a county where there are thirteen very ignorant voters to one reasonably intelligent voter," says the *Herald*, "the boards of examination and registration would trim the ignorance down to reasonable and perfectly safe limits, and everything would work smoothly without any illegal or violent methods." It is obvious that this would be a dangerous power to confer upon any board, and it seems hardly possible that the scheme will prove popular.

The truth is, that the problem is a most perplexing one, and the situation calls for the sympathy of outsiders. It is obvious that the negroes cannot be allowed the power in government to which their numerical preponderance would entitle them, but it is hard to see a method of restricting their votes which will not be objectionable to some element among the whites. The only hopeful feature of the situation is the evident anxiety of the best men in the State to find a solution which will be fair to all concerned.

FEMALE WRITERS OF SPAIN.

THE educational ideals and attainments of Spanish women were authoritatively sketched by one of the most noted of them, Doña Emilia Pardo Bazán, in an article in the *Fortnightly*, something more than a year ago—an article of which the Spanish original is just now appearing for the first time in *España Moderna*. Roughly speaking, she makes the present century in Spain one that marks a decided emergence for women from the profound ignorance characteristic of them in the eighteenth century, while it has not yet succeeded in equalling the achievements of the Renaissance.

"At the time of the Renaissance, Spanish women, whose learning equalled their piety, far from contenting themselves with no education, or with only a superficial one, held professorships of rhetoric and Latin, like Isabel Galindo, or widened the domain of philosophic speculation, like Oliva Sabuco. In the eighteenth century these traditions were so utterly lost that it was considered dangerous to teach girls the alphabet, on the ground that if they were able to read and write, they might correspond with their sweethearts. I have heard it told of a great-grandmother of mine, of noble family (grandees, in fact), that she was obliged to learn to write by herself, copying the letters from a printed book, with a pointed stick for pen, and mulberry-juice for ink."

In good keeping with this is what Valera writes in his 'El Comendador Mendoza' (a novel laid in the last of the eighteenth century):

"I suspect that our grandfathers, weary of the female bachelors of arts, and the Latin-speaking, pedantic ladies painted for us by Quevedo, Tirso, and Calderón, had fallen into the opposite extreme of taking pains that their women should learn nothing. Learning in a woman was to be considered a spring of evil. Thus it happened that in the provinces well-to-do and noble families educated their girls simply to be very active and systematic housekeepers. They learned to sew, to embroider, and to knit; many were good cooks; not a few ironed beautifully; but almost always care was taken that they should not learn to write, and they were taught little more than to read fairly well in 'The Christian Year' or some other pious book."

This reference of the trouble to the preferences of the men is abundantly supported by Señora Bazán, who says: "For the Spaniard, I do not hesitate to say, however liberal and advanced his ideas may be, the ideal of woman is not in the future, but in the past. . . . Men have gained rights and privileges in which women have no share." Nevertheless, the prospect is brightening: "Although there still exist men who commend absolute ignorance in women, the majority are beginning to prefer, at least in practical life, a wife who, without being ambitious of solid and serious instruction, has a shadow, veneer, or varnish of schooling which makes her presentable." "Few indeed are the avocations which are open to women in Spain, but fewer still are the women of the middle class who can make up their minds to exercise them. A few years ago, a lady, Martina Castells, graduated in medicine. The illustrated papers published her portrait as that of a remarkable and singular female."

A very striking and practical contribution to the question of the education of Spanish women, which reveals as clearly as anything could the partial recovery of the old ideals, is the series of articles published in several numbers of *España Moderna* within the past year, written by Don M. Ossorio y Bernard, and entitled "Notes for a Dictionary of Female Spanish Writers of the Nineteenth Century." Taking in all of Spain and her colonial possessions, the compiler presents a list of some 443 names. A large number of these—perhaps 50—can be at once dismissed as of slight significance, their literary activity being confined to having competed once or twice in the poetical contests so common in Spain, or to having contributed a poem to one of the yearly "albums" presented to the Queen. Among the rest figure many whose chief work in literature has been in the humble guise of translators, and not a few whose writings have seen the light only in the columns of newspapers. There remains, however, a goodly array of poets, dramatists, novelists, writers on pedagogy and elementary science, together with a half-dozen names whose eminence fairly calls for a distinct place in the history of modern Spanish literature.

Of the whole catalogue, a prodigious proportion—certainly one-half—is credited to poetry. The traditional facility with which Spanish verse can be written is thus exemplified afresh in the results of the new education of Spanish women. As a distinguished Spanish critic, Fray Benito Jerónimo Feijóo, has ventured to say of the men who write poetry, "The number of those who make couplets is infinite, but nowhere is there a poet," it may not be too ungallant to suppose that the women who are here set down as the authors of "poesías," cannot all be poets. Cuba naturally stands first among the colonies, having eighteen writers in the "Notes," almost all of them poets, while Porto Rico and the Canaries have each two.

Singling out a few of the names whose work has been most characteristic and noteworthy, in one way and another, we may take Doña Faustina Sáez de Melgar as a leading type of the fecund and versatile writers of her day. Born in 1834, she has been on the editorial staff of eighteen different periodicals, of one sort and another. She has published sixteen volumes, comprising novels, stories, legends, one or two serious treatises, and two dramas. In 1889 she became the Spanish translator of Carmen Silva, the Rumanian Queen. Worthy to be named with her is Doña María del Pilar Sinués de Marco, wife of the dramatist José Marco. She has been a life-long contributor to the leading papers of Spain, and Señor Ossorrio y Bernard enumerates sixty volumes published by her, adding that he is not at all sure that his list is complete.

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Doña Concepción Arenal has a place all her own. She is a prolific writer on all topics connected with the administration of penal and benevolent institutions, on public charities and social reform. With great intelligence and persistence, she has examined in person penal colonies, penitentiaries, and the like, and has written on her subject with a courage and thoroughness that have fairly won for her the name of the Mary Carpenter of Spain. The union of a literary gift with the zeal of a philanthropist and a reformer is so unprecedented in a Spanish woman that Señora Arenal has no rival for the honors she has won in her peculiar field. Doña Emilia Serrano de Wilson, the Baroness de Wilson, enjoys a fame in South America probably greater than that of any Spanish woman of the day. This is due to her frequent visits to Spanish America, to her occasional periods of residence in Spain's lost possessions, and to the fact that more than one of her books of travel narrate her journeys and experiences in South America. Her very last volume, 'Americanos Ilustres,' 1889, is an instance of the main drift of her writing. In 1881 she was the recipient of a poetic crown from the Society of Writers of Colombia.

One famous name stands out among the poets—that of Doña Gertrudis Gómez de Avellaneda. Born in Puerto Príncipe, Cuba, March 24, 1814, she published her first volume of poems when scarcely more than a child. Her genius was not prolific—it was too rare—and her collected works, of the edition of 1869, number but five volumes; they do not include, however, several dramas and some devotional writings of hers. She died in Madrid, February 1, 1873. A memorial tablet was erected in 1876 in the wall of the house where she was born. The genuineness of her lyric gift appears to be beyond all question. We may well believe Don Juan Nicasio Gallego when he gives her "the primacy among all the members of her sex who have struck the Spanish lyre in this or any age," even if we are not prepared to go along with Don Nicomedes Pastor Diaz in declaring her "the greatest among the poetesses of all times."

A woman's name, too, is one of the most conspicuous in the history of the development of the modern Spanish novel. Doña Cecilia Bohl de Faber made her pseudonym, Fernan Caballero, known throughout Spain as being that of the first writer to break away from the extravagance of the Romantic school, and to find her inspiration and her themes in the common life of the common people. Her many volumes of "Tales" undoubtedly led the way to the realistic Spanish novel of to-day, and though long since surpassed even in her own field by Trueba, and, of course, knowing nothing of the high art and range of her greater successors, she stands as the initiator of a healthier and more natural movement in the Spanish fiction of the century. Her contributions to Spanish folk-lore were also considerable. She was born in Morges, Switzerland, December 25, 1796, and died at Seville, April 7, 1877.

We close with the name with which we began. Doña Emilia Pardo Bazán is undoubtedly the foremost living woman of letters in Spain. Indeed, it would be hard to name a man more eagerly sought after by editors than she, or more frequently a contributor to the leading periodicals of Spain. She herself was the founder, and is now, we believe, the editor, of the *Revista de Galicia*. Of a noble family, she early gave indications of her extraordinary literary faculty. Famous now as a novelist, she is something more than that, as may be inferred from these two titles, 'The Epic Christian Poets, Dante, Milton, and Tasso,' and 'A Critical Essay on Darwinism.' In 1889 a popular movement sprang up to secure her a vacant seat in the Academy. She so far yielded to the solicitations of her friends as to announce her willingness to be a candidate, though she would adopt none of the usual means to secure an election. This she failed of, owing to the prejudice of the respectable Academicians against so startling an innovation as the admission of a woman into their honorable ranks.

ON THE EVE OF THE ELECTIONS IN JAPAN.

TOKIO, June 28, 1890.

As the day of the elections for the House of Representatives draws near, the interest of the Japanese in politics becomes keener. On all sides are rumors of combinations and party changes. In a few days (July 1) the elections will take place, and the Japanese will then be committed to all the privileges and duties of representative government. The political and economic problems which have hitherto been deferred will then again press for a definite solution. The policy of hesitation and delay in the more important issues of state will have to be abandoned. The new experiment in government must justify some of the aspirations of its friends, or the experiment will prove a failure. It may perhaps interest the readers of the *Nation* to get an outline of the actual political condition of Japan.

The present Cabinet is confessedly a makeshift. The circumstances that gave it life are briefly these. Count Okuma, Minister of Foreign Affairs, and a man of first-rate diplomatic ability, concluded a treaty, last October, for the complete opening up of Japan to foreigners. The Japanese had long wished a change in their treaty relations; but a provision in the treaty that foreigners in this country were to be under the jurisdiction of their own courts, and under no restraints whatever in business transactions, soon produced a revulsion in the feelings of the Japanese. They were galled by the former provision, for the very natural reason that it placed them on a level with Turkey, Egypt, and other fourth-rate Powers. It clearly involved the premise that their courts could not be trusted to dispense even-handed justice. The second provision aroused opposition because the Japanese feared that foreigners would overreach them in industrial enterprises. The huge capital in the hands of the English, directed by that tremendous energy and ruthlessness which characterize all English mercantile ventures in the East, might easily, under equal conditions, wrest from the Japanese their more profitable industries. The feeling of hostility became more and more bitter, until finally the Minister of Foreign Affairs resigned his portfolio, not, however, before one of a certain class of irresponsible political characters called *soshi* threw a bomb at him which was nearly fatal.

A new Cabinet was formed in which neither Count Okuma nor his political followers had a seat. No political issues of any importance have since disturbed the country, though politics in a sense has been eagerly discussed in every nook and corner of the nation. And there is an uneasy feeling in the air, as if no one were quite sure of his ground. The reason for this uncertainty is due partly to the unstable economic conditions of the country, and partly to the failure of the Japanese to get their party organizations into working order.

Japan is at present suffering from a partial failure of last year's rice crop. The price of rice has been very high, averaging two or two and a half times its normal price. Such a rise in the price of an absolute necessary of life causes much more difficulty in a country like Japan than in any country of Europe or America. Rice in Japan occupies a more important place as food than wheat does in America. There are no substitutes for rice, as there are for wheat in America or Europe, and, what is worse, the Japanese in case of a short crop take to foreign rice with the greatest reluctance. A Japanese will eat Chinese or India rice only under the spur of absolute hunger. The Chinese rice seems to them inferior in every respect, and, so far as Americans can discriminate in these matters, there is much to be said in favor of Japanese taste. The result of this fastidiousness, however, is that there is scarcely an assignable limit to the price of Japanese rice in case of a short crop. With very little importation, and with every one striving to get his daily share of domestic rice, it is hardly to be wondered at that a shortage of a few million *koku*, say one-eighth of the crop, may readily result in a doubling or even trebling of the price. The present high price of rice has caused discontent and even incipient riots in certain districts; and in a country like Japan, where the paternal form of government is established, there is a widespread disposition to throw the burden of public distresses on the shoulders of the Government.

The position of various political parties has added to the feeling of uncertainty and discontent. The essential peculiarity of old Japan was loyalty to men instead of adhesion to principles. Each man must be faithful to his lord or master through life and death. This state of things continues still to be the actuating motive of political parties. One hears very little of parties distinguished by opposition of principles or ideas, but much of parties headed by Count Okuma or Count Goto or Itagaki and others. The result is, that thus far it has been next to impossible to get parties formed which stand for different principles or policies of action.

Parties there are in abundance, and they have even announced programmes, which to a degree are discriminating. There is the *Kaishin-to*, or Progressive party, undeniably the strongest and best organized party in Japan. It has had a brilliant history in many ways. It was the party to champion the cause of a constitutional parliament and local self-government. It led in the reforms of the currency and finance, and tried to take the lead in establishing new treaties with foreign countries; but the latter feat proved too great, on account of the combined opposition of other parties, and it fell from its commanding position. There is the *Jiyu-to*, or Radical party, which stands for more vigorous reforms; it wishes to introduce trial by jury, more diffused franchise, to abolish Government interference with industry, and restrict the powers of the Government in as many ways as possible. There is the *Aikoku Ko-to*, or Patriotic party, which likewise stands for the extension of political rights. All of these parties, however, are divided into sections, which are likely to oppose the general programme of the leaders. Besides these parties are the *Daido Danketsu*, or Combination party, whose motto is, "United on great questions, differing on small"; and *Chiusei-ha*, or Conservative party, whose principle is the vague one of preserving Japanese from foreign customs and influences. All these parties, as stated before, have political platforms, but in most cases there is neither a sufficient amount of union nor difference to make them distinctive. Nor is the opposition greatest between the parties whose principles

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differ most widely. Frequently, as in the case of the *Daido Danketsu* some years ago, Radicals and Conservatives were seen in the same camp. The real effective influence in the formation of parties is personal popularity, or at best a temporary enthusiasm, created by some fleeting public question. As soon as the leader is under a cloud, or the issue settled, parties disintegrate and lose their character.

The result is, there is little more than confusion as yet in Japanese party politics. Many of the most sensible persons, among whom are candidates for the House of Representatives, stand entirely aloof from party organization. The hope of the most advanced opinion is that, after the opening of the House of Representatives, public questions will arise to coalesce the numerous parties into two, and that these will be distinguished by opposition of well-defined political purposes, as are the parties of England and the United States. That this "consummation devoutly to be wished" will be brought about before the meeting of the Representatives is scarcely likely. Even the approach of the elections, which it was hoped might bring about party amalgamation, has accomplished nothing. There has been talk of a union between the Liberal, Radical, and Patriotic parties, but thus far no successful union has resulted.

It is probable, therefore, that many Independents will be elected to the House of Representatives. In Tokio, where there are twelve electoral districts, there is an independent candidate in nearly every district, and, if the signs are to be trusted, a fair number of them will be elected. In all this uncertainty there is at least one great advantage. The enemies of popular government, both Japanese and foreigners, have predicted violence and riots; but, from the very diffusion of power and absence of party lines, it is likely that the election will go off very quietly. There are charges of corruption and bribery which in some cases recall the corrupt practices of American politics, but these charges have led to no Government interference. As a whole, for a people so liable to sudden enthusiasms as the Japanese, the country takes the advent of its first national election in undisturbed tranquillity.

G. D.

THE TUSCAN MAREMME.

ROME, July 1, 1890.

THE tenacity of the superstitions concerning the sanitary condition of Rome is a never-ending surprise to me. Not a year passes that I do not receive many inquiries as to the possibility of coming safely to Rome in June, sometimes even in May, or how long one may stay in Rome without danger. The climate is not an exhilarating one even in winter, and the summer life is too much like existence in a Turkish bath; but, for a brief experience, Rome in July is not without its peculiar pleasures if one has little or no work to do. But I was not prepared to find myself laboring under the same mistaken idea of the Italian climate which I have so often tried to dispel with regard to that of Rome, as I discover myself to have been by a run through the Tuscan Maremme, or sea provinces, late in June.

I confess that I had been a little nervous before leaving, and made my first stage to Orbetello by the early train so as to have time to get away by the second if I found the place untenable. Murray describes the town as situated in the great salt lake, "the cause of the malaria in the surrounding country during the summer," which is as curious a misstatement of the actual status as it was possible to make; for the town, as I found on investigation, is one of remarkable sanitary qualities, and is frequented as a summer bathing-place even by the Romans. When I want to obtain a rapid judgment of the intensity of malaria in a place, I study the faces of the children in the streets, and I was reassured before reaching the inn, and asked for a room without hesitation, for a more rosy and robust lot of urchins than those of Orbetello I have not seen in Italy. I found, on further investigation, that in a prison of some importance containing 300 to 400 prisoners, and a barrack giving quarters to a battalion of soldiers, there was not a single case of malarial fever, and none of the inhabitants take refuge in the mountains during the summer. In fact, I have rarely been in an Italian town where the population has in a more marked degree that alertness and energetic deportment which is a certificate of freedom from malarial influences.

It stands on the point of a long peninsula which projects into the shallow lake formed by the enclosure of the sea by two dunes, which have been thrown up by the surf from the two extremities of the island of Monte Argentaro, lying about two miles off from the mainland, and stands as nearly as may be in the middle of this sheet of salt water, in which the tide (such as the Mediterranean furnishes) flows and ebbs through great fishing weirs set in the dunes. The low lands along the shore and for a distance of half a mile back are no doubt malarious from the stagnation and drying up of the streams that come from the hills behind; but even there the terrors of malaria are enormously exaggerated, for the population, as we saw in driving through the district, show very few cases of the characteristic fever prostration. They were making their hay and hoeing their maize, and a large gang of men was at work cutting a new passage for the sea through the base of one of the dunes where the old one had become choked from the wash of the surf. Malaria there certainly is in that strip of land which is under the influence of the exhalations of the marshes formed along the shore; but when we note the extreme recklessness of the laborers in the fields, throwing themselves down to sleep out their siesta in any shade which is available after their dinners, utterly indifferent to all the precautions which are indicated by the simplest prudence, we are only surprised that there is a population there. The railway station was, they told me, at one time very unhealthy from the fevers, but when the Orbetellians made their aqueduct from the hills of Argentaro, and carried a main on to the station, so that pure drinking-water became obtainable, the sanitary condition improved at once and greatly.

When Garibaldi went to Marsala, he sailed from Talamone, just beyond the dune which forms the northern limit of the Lake of Orbetello, and the fishermen of the latter place furnished him with a considerable contingent of volunteers; and he is to-day the popular idol. All the streets are named after the battles of the Italian emancipation, and, what generally goes with a healthy political tendency, clean streets and good school-houses distinguish the town. In the four days I passed there I did not see a beggar or a cripple from disease. A large machine shop seems to be suffering from the prevailing stagnation in Italy, but beside it a branch for the manufacture of ice is doing a driving business. It supplies the ice for the fishermen of the fishing ports of San Stefano and Port Ercole, situated at the outer ends of the two dunes, of which that of San Stefano is being strongly fortified in conjunction with Talamone on the main land, forming the only important naval position between Spezzia and Naples. The population of all these places is a hardy fisherman stock, whose robustness is proof enough that the sea air and malaria cannot coexist.

The surroundings of Orbetello are of peculiar interest for the archæologist, and the polygonal walls of the city are of unique importance from their showing the only instance (so far as I am aware) of a Pelasgic city built out into the sea. It suggests the occupation of a lacustrine predecessor. On three sides of the irregular quadrilateral of the present fortification the wall remains, and, except where the rubbish heap of the moderns has covered the base of it, it rises out of the water. It is of the good period, well-worked with the hammer and faced with great precision, apparently belonging to the epoch of Alatri and Circeo. The employment of it as the substructure of the Spanish fortifications of the seventeenth century which now cover the isthmus with an intricate mass of works in the best style of that epoch, indicates the importance the site had in the contests between the Siennese, the French, and Philip II., as well as the solidity of the ancient work. Constructed of a hard limestone, though of extremely unequal texture, the drip and spray of incalculable centuries has left the surface so carious that I was at first sight disposed to regard it as a shell limestone of marine deposit and friable, and the work of a comparatively modern date; but when I found means to examine the stone closely, I found it of almost flinty hardness and containing no shells or other fossils, and that the carious condition was simply the work of time. The stones, some of them of approximately sixty cubic feet in size, were, as I found in subsequent researches, brought from the hills of the main land, and none of them from less than three or four miles away, as little or no loose stone occurs nearer.

Far more imposing, though presenting no feature of distinguishing novelty, are the Pelasgic ruins of Cosa, or Ansedonia, on a bold bluff a few miles to the south and looking down on the sea. The ruins of a double gate, of larger proportions than is usual, and grooved for a portcullis apparently, are of architectural interest, and the height of the wall in some places is remarkable as well as its preservation; but as a whole it is only another item in the great body of evidence of the power and prosperity of a civilization whose name has disappeared from history. Within a day's drive of this point are the ruins of what must have been great cities to the number of more than a dozen, some of which have even lost their names, and have not been inhabited since the formation of our oldest traditions. A magnificent piece of engineering work is to be seen below Cosa, and one which shows a knowledge of hydraulics equal to that of to-day. It is a drain made to carry off the water from the low lands between the hill of Cosa and the main range, whose sea end terminates in a tunnel cut through the solid rock, with a cross-channel cut in the rock also, so that the drain cannot be silted up by the wash of the sea, the two forming a T cut in the bluff with a wall defending the tunnel from the direct attacks of the waves. It is not, however, of the period of the construction of Cosa, for the workmanship is distinctly chisel-work, the mark of the chisel being everywhere visible; but it must be prior to the Roman conquest. It is a work well worth a visit from any one who is interested in the arts of the ancients. It contains the history of a long struggle with the elements, for it is clear that the drainage had been carried first through the low land close by, directly into the

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sea, just as the people of Orbetello tried a few years ago to do a similar work; and that the engineers then found, as now, that the drain could not be kept from silting up, and that it had been seen, as later it is seen, that the drain must discharge into the deep sea; but the device of leaving a wall of the natural rock masking the mouth of the drain is one I have never seen elsewhere. The moderns, finding the drain necessary, had reopened it, but as the ancients did at first, through the beach, and had soon to accept the antique lesson and clear out the tunnel.

W. J. S.

THE CORRESPONDENCE OF THE DUCHESS OF ORLEANS.

PARIS, July 9, 1890.

OUR time is not fond of historical generalities and condensations. History has adopted the scientific method: it studies facts, it prefers what we call documents—that is to say, original letters, papers, memoirs. The 'Siècle de Louis XIV.' is still read, because it is Voltaire's—with a perfection of clearness, simplicity, rapidity, which has seldom been attained by any writer. But how many people read it twice? while you may read a hundred times, in a fragmentary manner, the Memoirs of Saint-Simon and the correspondence of Madame the Duchess of Orleans, the mother of the Regent.

Madame and Saint-Simon will always remain the permanent witnesses and, on many points, the permanent judges of the actors of the second half of the reign of Louis XIV. They will always be consulted; their judgments on men and things are invaluable. Of course they must be read with a critical spirit, as they had both strong prejudices; but their natures were fundamentally honest, they loved truth and righteousness, or what seemed to them righteousness. Their ideal was not the ideal of our time; but, such as it was, it stood well by them. It has always seemed extraordinary to me that Madame and Saint-Simon, who will be read in future ages when hundreds of other historians of the seventeenth century are forgotten, had both the most intense passion for rank; they never forgot for a moment what was due to a royal highness or to a duke and peer; but let us add at once that if they insisted on their rights, they did not ignore their duties: royal and aristocratic pride became for them a sort of virtue; it made them hate and despise what was low and ignoble. They both lived in the region of the mind where pride becomes dignity, truthfulness, and real excellence. Aristocracy ceases to be the characteristic of court life; it assumes its true character, it is the rule of the *best*. In this respect both Madame and Saint-Simon were eminently different from those who expected everything from the royal favor; they had not the spirit of Versailles, and they were thus able to judge Versailles, as it were, from the outside, though they were an integral part of it.

Madame had, besides, the advantage (I speak from the historical point of view) of being a foreigner; she was not blinded by the natural prejudices which inspire us with regard to those who belong to our race or family. She was the daughter of the Elector Palatine and of the Landgravine Charlotte of Hesse-Cassel, a thorough German, and a German of her time—a time when Germany had a number of small courts and of intellectual centres, with their independent and I might almost say their domestic life. Her father had suffered defeat at the battle of the White Mountains, and lost at the same moment the crown of Bohemia and his electorate. He spent some years in Holland and in England, with his uncle Charles I., and returned to Germany after the Peace of Westphalia (1648). Madame was born in 1652; her father and mother did not live well together, and Madame was really educated by her aunt, Sophia of Hanover. She remained with her from 1659 till 1663, at which time she returned to Heidelberg. She left Heidelberg in 1671, at the age of nineteen, to go to France, where she became the wife of Monsieur the brother of the King.

The two persons who really formed her mind were her father and her aunt Sophia. Her father contracted a morganatic marriage with the Baroness Louise of Degenfeld. He was of a gay and lively disposition, economical, a good father, very tolerant in religious matters, fond of the theatre, especially of the English theatre; he knew well the English, Italian, and French languages. He was much attached to his sister Sophia, who is well known by her Memoirs. I have had occasion to speak of her at some length in my review of a good book by M. Horric de Beaucaire, 'Éléonore Desmier d'Olbreuse, Duchesse de Zell.' The Duchess Sophia appears in her relations with Éleonore d'Olbreuse as very vindictive, aristocratic in the extreme, yet fond of jokes, even of coarse jokes.

The principal correspondent of Madame was her aunt Sophia. Leopold Ranke was the first to draw attention to these letters, and gave some extracts from them in his 'Französische Geschichte.' In a new edition of Madame's correspondence, just edited in three volumes by M. Ernest Jaeglé, professor of German at the military college of Saint-Cyr, we have now for the first time the whole of this correspondence. M. Jaeglé visited for this object the archives of Hanover, where these letters form twenty-four bundles. One hundred and fifty inedited letters have been translated from the original. To these are added a few which are in the royal library of Hanover (*fonds* Leibnitz). M. Bodeman had already used this *fonds* in his 'Briefwechsel zwischen Leibnitz und der Herzogin Elisabeth Charlotte von Orleans in den Jahren 1715 und 1716.'

The letters written by Madame to her half-sisters and brothers the Palatine Raugrafen have been published by M. Holland. Prof. Varrentrap of Marburg searched for the letters which she wrote to her father and mother; he supposes that the letters to the Electress Charlotte were burned, as well as those which were written to her father; one only of these last has been found. Among the regular correspondents of Madame was the eldest of the daughters of Monsieur, by his first marriage, the Queen of Spain, first wife of Charles II., and afterwards first wife of Philip V. None of these letters have been found in the Spanish archives; we may also consider as lost the letters of Madame to the second wife of Charles II., the Marie of Victor Hugo's 'Ruy Blas,' and to the Duchess of Este, her sister.

In the archives of Hanover are fortunately preserved, in a magnificent folio, many extracts of the letters which Madame, after the death of Louis XIV., wrote to the Princess of Wales, between 1715 and 1720 ('Auszug aus Madame, Duchesse d'Orléans, an ihre königliche Hoheit die Prinzessin von Wallis in den Jahren 1715 bis 1720 abgelassenen Schreiben,' etc.). Geheimrath von Praun published these extracts in Strasbourg in 1789, under the title of 'Anekdoten vom französischen Hofe, vorzüglich aus den Zeiten Ludwigs XIV. und des Duc Regent, aus Briefen der Mad. d'Orléans.' A year before this publication, a French translation, which is now rather rare, appeared, under the title 'Fragments de lettres originales de Madame Charlotte Élisabeth de Bavière, veuve de Monsieur, frère unique de Louis XIV.' (Paris, 1788).

Madame had a second correspondent in Hanover in the person of Herr von Harling, who had become the husband of her former governess, Fräulein von Offeln. In 1791, the letters to Harling appeared at Danzig with this title: 'Bekenntnisse der Prinzessin Elisabeth Charlotte, aus ihren Original-Briefen.' In 1820, there appeared in Leipzig a life of Madame with extracts of her letters, and in 1823 we note in Paris the 'Mémoires extraits de la correspondance allemande de la Duchesse d'Orléans.' Several editions of these Memoirs appeared in succession. The correspondence with the Raugrafen, which was kept in the archives of the Counts of Degenfeld, at Eybach in Würtemberg, was only brought to light in 1843 by Wolfgang Menzel, in the *Bibliothek* of the Literary Union at Stuttgart. Brunet gave a French translation of it in 1853, and in 1855 he published a more complete edition.

We must consider the edition which has now appeared as far superior to all the incomplete editions which we have mentioned in detail. We doubt if much more can be found in the archives of the various countries where Madame had correspondents. The letters have been arranged in their chronological order; an excellent index makes research easy. If there is anything to criticise, it is the translation itself. It seems to me that M. Jaeglé has been a little too careful to keep the Germanisms of Madame intact. There is a sort of affectation in saying, for instance, "Sa Dilection" (a translation of the German *Durchlaucht*), where he could easily have said Son Altesse, especially when the persons in question are princes of the royal family of France. The notes are exact and numerous, but they are too meagre; perhaps the publisher was afraid of augmenting the dimensions of his volume.

Such as it is, this publication will remain, we are inclined to believe, for a long time the standard edition of Madame's correspondence. Though I have read it over and over again in Brunet's edition, I have gone through these volumes with as much pleasure as if all its matter was new to me. There is a freshness in Madame's sensations and emotions which gives the reader a perpetual pleasure. Her powers of indignation are inexhaustible. She is all the time like a bird in a strange nest. She is touching at times—when she speaks, for instance, of the hours which she passed, in the early morning, on the hills of Heidelberg, eating cherries and dry bread. She loves her dear Palatinate; how could she like and admire those who devastated it? The glories of Versailles do not blind her. She hates the Jesuits, and hypocrites of all sorts. She remains a Protestant at heart; she falls asleep during the sermons she is made to hear. She is a German also, but she can admire, she even loves, Louis XIV., the most courteous of kings, who never fails to treat her with due regard and with kindliness. She is passionately fond of her son, but she never forgives him his mésalliance, his marriage with a natural daughter of the King. She sees in this unfortunate union the cause of all the disorders, not only of the Regent, but of the Regent's daughters. She hates Mme. de Maintenon, and speaks of her sometimes in the coarsest manner. Dress the *Misanthrope* of Molière in woman's clothes, place him in the French Court of the seventeenth century, among all the *Philintes* who are content to float with the tide of immorality and of corruption, and you have Madame. She is as eloquent, as unreasonable, as arbitrary, as unteachable as Molière's *Misanthrope*, as misera-

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ble also, and incapable of putting her own mind and her own heart at rest; she is at the same time comical and tragical, almost ridiculous and almost sublime. Her tough and robust nature resists all the soft and enervating influences of the most refined Court. Her notion of duty is simple, even narrow, but no woman ever had it and preserved it so entire, and under so many difficulties.

Correspondence.

THE SEX OF SILVER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Apropos of your editorial on "The Mythology of Silver," in your issue of July 17, 1890, and as throwing light on the vexed question of the sex of this deity of the American people, I send you the enclosed cartoon, reprinted in the *Kansas City Times* from the *Rocky Mountain News*. Coming as it does from the very heart of the silver region, and prepared presumably by an earnest devotee of the deity in question, it would seem to be very persuasive authority in favor of the opinion that silver is of the female sex.

It also, though most probably without having been so intended by the draughtsman, gives a clear idea of the effect of the adoption of the free-coinage policy, had the Senate Silver Bill become a law. "Mr. Gold Dollar" would undoubtedly have been "off his feet" in a short time after the inauguration of such a policy. Very truly,

A. R. STROTHER.

KANSAS CITY, MO., July 20, 1890.

Notes.

MACMILLAN & Co. will reprint from the Collected Works of Edward Fitzgerald, published last year, the 'Rubáiyát' of Omar Khayyám; and the first volume of 'Principles of Economics,' by Prof. Alfred Marshall.

'The White Mountains,' by the Rev. Julius H. Ward, will be issued at once by D. Appleton & Co.

Harper & Bros. will add to their series of translations from foreign authors Giovanni Verga's 'The House by the Medlar-Tree,' Englished by Mary A. Craig, with an introduction by Mr. Howells.

Mr. Frank Dempster Sherman will publish, through Houghton, Mifflin & Co., in the autumn, a new volume of poems entitled 'Lyrics for a Lute.'

Mr. Herbert Ward's 'Five Years with the Congo Cannibals' will be held back by the publishers, Robert Bonner's Sons, till October 15.

Mr. Frank Vincent's 'In and Out of Central America' (Appletons) is a little book in the author's now well-marked style—that of a hurried though sharp-eyed traveller, who gives his note-books in full, without troubling himself over native authorities or thinking the peoples he writes about worth careful study. The "out" part of the book—nearly one-half—ranges from Cambodia and Siam to Brazil and the Antilles.

The sixth volume of Mr. Worthington C. Ford's edition of the 'Writings of Washington' (Putnams) covers the period August 1, 1777–April 30, 1778, with the capture of Burgoyne, the loss of Philadelphia, and the rigors of Valley Forge, where, it is well to be reminded, on December 23, 1777, "we had in camp not less than 2,898 men unfit for duty by reason of their being barefoot and otherwise naked." Add to this distress the Gates-Conway cabal, and the trouble with foreign adventurers seeking commands in the army (there was even some friction over Lafayette); on the other hand, the invaluable accession of Kalb, Steuben, Pulaski, and Kosciuszko. The most important piece in the volume is a complete copy of Washington's paper to a Committee of Congress touching the reorganization of the army. On p. 317 there is an interesting foot-note on the employment of colored troops in Rhode Island, and Col. John Laurens's proposal to try the same thing in Virginia, as it would "advance those who are unjustly deprived of the rights of mankind to a state which would be a proper gradation between abject slavery and perfect liberty."

Mr. Andrew Clark's edition of Anthony Wood's 'Survey of the Antiquities of the City of Oxford' (1661-66) deals in the second volume, just issued from the Clarendon Press, with churches and religious houses. Comparatively little labor had to be expended upon the original chapters for this reprint. A map expressly compiled for the volume shows the academical and ecclesiastical buildings definitely stated to have been in Oxford in 1440. There is a selective index, which the general index in the concluding volume will supplant.

'Au Sud & au Nord,' by Xavier Marmier (Paris: Hachette et Cie.; New York: F. W. Christern), is a hodge-podge of scraps from all sources on a great variety of topics which have no relation to each other or to the title of the book. It resembles nothing so much as an old-fashioned magazine or school-reader; indeed, the only use which it is fit to serve is as a reader for young people learning French, to whom one can safely give it, as it is quite harmless, although without any literary value. As a repertory of useful information it is not entirely reliable, for in reproducing Sydney Smith's celebrated passage concerning the taxes an Englishman has to pay, it conveys no hint that the conditions therein described have been entirely done away with.

'Die Achten-Lini' is a slight musical novellette by J. Dedekind (Brunswick: B. Goeritz; New York: Westermann), having a strong family resemblance to all musical stories, from 'Consuelo' down. It is marked by the same lachrymose sentimentality and the same excessive idolatry of the musical gift that make books of this class almost ludicrous to readers who are not ready to throw overboard all sense of proportion in judging of human life and human capacities. It is intended as a memorial of a German prima donna, Caroline Fischer-Achten, whose portrait (given as a frontispiece), though interesting, hardly justifies the glowing terms in which the author celebrates her beauty.

'Experimental Science,' by George M. Hopkins (Munn & Co.), is a book which will attract all who are in any way interested in physical experimentation. The author is a well-known writer for the *Scientific American*, and much of the material of this volume has appeared from time to time in the columns of that paper. In bringing together and arranging his articles in a connected and systematic form, Mr. Hopkins has rendered a valuable service to experimental physics; for not only does his book offer an excellent means for becoming practically acquainted with the most important facts and principles of natural philosophy, but the ingenuity and effectiveness of the experiments which it describes, and the simplicity of much of the apparatus employed in their performance, must incite the interest of many who find the usual text-book description forbidding and its experiments impossible. Moreover, the book is full of suggestiveness to teachers of physics in their preparation for class-room demonstration. The author took the precaution to perform nearly all the experiments at the time of writing, so that the reader may depend upon that accuracy of detail which will insure success in their repetition. The 600 or 700 engravings, most of which were made expressly for the text, form a special feature and cannot be too highly praised. All the usual subjects of natural philosophy are fully treated, and there are also excellent chapters on microscopy, lantern projection, and on mechanical operations—the last containing many helpful directions for working in glass, soldering, moulding, and other matters of practical manipulation.

Mr. P. Vanderbilt Spader of New Brunswick, N. J., has printed his weather record for the interval 1847 to 1890, for private circulation. It is less full in the earlier years, but from 1857 the maximum and minimum temperatures and the precipitation are complete. The monthly totals of rainfall and the extremes of temperature are tabulated at the end of the volume. Mr. Spader has now discontinued his observations, owing to failing sight; but his record will be kept up by a young friend, Mr. C. V. Meyers, to whom the instruments are given. The mean annual precipitation is 46.82 inches; but for the last three years the total has been excessive: 51.84, 59.00, and 61.30. The mean temperatures are not deduced; the extremes are —12° for January, 1873, and 98° in July, 1866, giving an absolute range of 110° in thirty-three years.

'The Fossil Butterflies of Florissant' is an interesting paper on the Lepidoptera of the tertiary formations by Samuel H. Scudder, of thirty-five pages and two plates, from the eighth annual report of the Director of the United States Geological Survey. To the ten known from elsewhere seven species, representing six new genera, are added. These Colorado butterflies are all of extinct genera with nearest living affinities among tropical forms, which is in accord with other evidence of subtropical conditions during the tertiary much nearer the poles than at present. The fact that these fossil species possess a characteristic feature of the family ranking highest among the living—atrophy of the front legs in one or both sexes—moves the author to say: "We must therefore look for the proofs either of great acceleration in development when butterflies first appeared, or of the existence of butterflies at a far earlier period than we yet know them." In the absence of any proof that such acceleration occurs or has occurred, we should choose the latter alternative, and search for butterflies in much lower formations.

Part 8 of the 'Handwörterbuch der Staatswissenschaften' (Westermann) is mostly taken up with the last part of the long article on banking, and with articles relating to the peasant class, embracing rural economy generally, and more especially the history of the emancipation of agricultural laborers from serfdom and other forms of bondage in various countries. Among the countries embraced in the list is Japan, which is treated by Dr. Inazo Ota-Nitobe, who writes German very well, and is the author of a work, published in Berlin, on Japanese land tenure. He describes the changes brought about by the abolition of the feudal system in 1871, the chief among them being that the tillers of the soil, instead of paying a tribute in kind to the feudal lord, now pay a money tax to the State, and are at liberty to sell or mortgage their holdings. The effects of the reform have not been altogether beneficial, many of the farmers being hopeless-

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ly in debt, while the rice crop, being no longer under inspection, has deteriorated in quality, in the anxiety to increase its quantity.

Maps of the South Pole, of the western half of Polynesia and the Pacific Ocean, and of Eastern China, Corea, and Japan, make up Part 23 of the new edition of 'Stieler's Hand-Atlas' (Gotha: Perthes; New York: Westermann). Each plate comprises several side-maps.

The 'Contributions to American Educational History,' edited for the Bureau at Washington by Dr. Herbert B. Adams, have just been extended by a monograph on the History of Education in Alabama, by Willis G. Clark of Mobile. As this State had in its present territory only 3,481 white inhabitants in 1810, it may be supposed that Mr. Clark's tale is somewhat meagre. He fills, however, nearly 300 pages, with the usual illustrations.

The latest of the Publications of the American Economic Association, Baltimore, is a double number, consisting of (1) "The Canal and the Railway," with a note on the development of railway passenger traffic, by Prof. E. J. James; and (2) "Canals and their Economic Relation to Transportation," by Prof. Lewis M. Haupt.

The late Gen. Frémont was engaged at the time of his death on a paper for the *Century Magazine's* forthcoming series on the California Gold-Hunters. It will be completed by Mrs. Frémont. A portrait of the Pathfinder, after an early daguerreotype, will appear in the September issue.

In the July number of the *Library Journal* attention is called to the endeavor of the New York Library Club to compile a Library Manual of New York city and vicinity which, for the first time, will reveal the extent and characteristic collections of the upwards of 125 libraries hereabouts, with their upwards of two million volumes. The fifth inquiry of the Club's circular reads: "General character of the Library"; and the seventeenth: "Specify field in which the Library is strong: specialties if any, and character and extent of any special collections." These are of the first importance to students. Other inquiries relate to conditions of use, catalogues, rate of growth, etc., etc.

We read in the *Bollettino* of the National Central Library at Florence of the publication of vol. i. of the national edition of Galileo's Works from the MSS. preserved in that library. Only five hundred copies are printed, and none are for sale, distribution to learned societies the world over being confided to the Minister of Education. A smaller and less costly edition, however, will eventually be brought out for the public at large. The same library has just acquired a remarkable collection of notices concerning persons, families, districts, and events in Tuscany, gathered from printed books, codices, and MSS. in the Florentine libraries and archives by the late Gargano Gargani, who died last year at the age of sixty-nine. It is styled 'Il Poligrafo Toscano,' and is extremely voluminous. Finally, we are told of two bibliographies—one tentative, of arts and trade corporations, by G. Gonetta, in his forthcoming 'Storia delle Associazioni di previdenza in Italia'; the other, very copious, of Italian helminthology, in three parts, viz., an author-catalogue, a systematic catalogue of worms, and a chronologic history of the science in the peninsula.

The Secretary of the Treasury has decided that the blocks of Mr. Cole's woodcuts for the *Century* are not works of art, and are therefore subject to a duty of 35 per cent. ad valorem, which amounts to nearly $100 on each block. It would be interesting to have the definition of art which expresses the conception of it by the Secretary. A copy of any work of art is not a work of art, clearly, for the engraving of Mr. Cole is only a copy on wood capable of being multiplied; but if it is not art, then all the academies of the Old World are ignorant of art, for the engraver is recognized as one of the artists who may even be accorded the *Grand prix de Rome* with the painters, the sculptors, the architects, and the musicians; and certainly no school of art in the world would agree with the Secretary in his decision that Cole's engravings are not art. It is said of a foolish French King that he once declared himself independent of the grammar of his language, but it is reserved for an American Secretary of the Treasury to declare his independence of the dictionary and the opinions of the experts in art. Seriously, this is getting funny; the Secretary probably does not know the difference between a process block and an engraving. The photographers have been discussing the question whether photography is art or not, but the doubt is solved for them, since if Cole's work is not art, no form of reproduction can be.

—On the title-page of the twenty-second volume of the 'Dictionary of National Biography' (Macmillan), the name of Sidney Lee appears for the first time in conjunction with that of Leslie Stephen. Mr. Lee's name is less well known than his chief's; it is not, for example, included (as yet—there will be a supplement) in Gubernatis's 'Dictionnaire International des Écrivains du Jour,' now in the letter P. His contributions, many of them important, show his field to be the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, with a preference for the poets. Mr. Stephen's principal article in vol. xxiii. is on Thomas Gray, whose other talents than the poetic are so little appreciated. We do not allude to his letters, of which Mr. Stephen says that they are "all but the best in the best age of letter-writing." The historian Grote, we believe, receives in nine pages more attention than any other personage in this volume, and it is recorded that the weight of his brain (49.75 oz.) "was surprisingly small for a man of his stature and size of head." John Richard Green is the most eminent of those whose death occurred on this side of the imaginary line (1880) at which the Dictionary halts. Another exception is Thomas Hill Green (briefly sketched by Mr. Stephen); a third, that energetic Lord Mayor of Dublin, journalist and M.P., Edward Dwyer Gray; a fourth, Edmund Gurney, the light of the Psychical Research Society; a fifth, W. R. Greg, and a sixth, his son, Percy Greg, whose inherited pessimism was concentrated upon the United States, of which he attempted to write the history from the Confederate point of view. He is well styled an "embittered adversary of the American Union," in spite of a "tender vein of lyrical poetry." An odd American connection is furnished by James Pierrepont Greaves, an English mystic, who died in 1842 "at Alcott House, Ham, so named after Amos Bronson Alcott, the American transcendentalist, with whom he had a long correspondence." Other names possessing a cisatlantic interest are Grenville, to whom we were indebted for the Stamp Act, and to that extent for independence; Gen. Charles Grey, who routed Gen. Anthony Wayne; John Greenwood, a Bostonian, who became in Europe a distinguished portrait-painter; and the Quaker philanthropist, Joseph John Gurney, whose visit to this country in 1840 was an event in his own denomination, and was attended with some honors from statesmen at Washington not averse to attracting the Quaker vote. The volume opens with the Gray tribe, embraces the Greens in their diverse spellings, and ends with Haighton, and we may be pretty sure that it marks the middle term of the great series in which it belongs, and whose execution is truly beyond praise, as the labor spent upon it is, we fear, at the best, beyond any adequate reward.

—Two publications of unusual interest are added to the "Tudor Library" (London: David Nutt). The first is a reprint of Sir Thomas More's translation and paraphrases from Giovanni Pico della Mirandola. It includes his nephew's biography of the philosopher, three of his letters, his interpretation of Psalm xvi., his twelve rules of a Christian Life, his twelve points of a Perfect Lover, and his deprecatory hymn to God. An admirable introduction, describing the career and the character of the thought of Pico, together with ample notes, is furnished by the editor, Mr. J. M. Rigg. The selections made by Sir Thomas More give mainly the spirit of piety which governed Pico's Christian life, and in the prose portion there is much fine sincerity expressed with the ancient dignity and largeness of the English tongue. In the poems, which are expanded, for the most part, from Pico's prose, there is more crudeness, with only an occasional good line, but the same pious feeling controls all of them, the "twelve points of a Perfect Lover" being applied solely to the love of God. The edition, which is very handsomely printed and made, is limited to 500 copies. The second publication is of very different and much greater interest. It is a reprint of Angel Day's version, through Amyot's French translation of the old Greek romance of 'Daphnis and Chloe,' from the unique original in the Huth Library. From Amyot the Elizabethans also took Heliodorus and North's Plutarch, but the popularity of pastorals rather than of Amyot probably accounts for Angel Day's attempt to English the idyllic romance in 1587. He interpolated into it a "Shephard's Holiday," in which the swains sing in succession the praises of "Our Eliza," with much better good-will than poetry. The prose of the book, however, though often complicated and long-drawn-out, is constantly visited by the Elizabethan felicity, and sufficiently ornamented besides with Arcadian phrase, to make the work a treasure-trove. Of the well-known story, so long classical in the French of Amyot, but never naturalized in English, it is superfluous to speak. It belongs with the true pastoral, with the naïveté of the primitive love tale, with 'Aucassin and Nicolette.' Many passages of charming feeling, of pretty orchard and fountain scenes, of true romantic adventure, of the wanton naked child in the Greek idyls, and the cave of the nymphs that is almost Renaissance in flavor, of strange battle, shipwreck, and rustic humor, could be cited to tempt the reader, with their original beauty and the sweetness of the phrase, often struggling with the awkward vehicle of Angel Day's language, but also often shining out clear and pure. The volume will find great favor with lovers of Elizabethan literature, and the editor, Joseph Jacob, has given a sufficient account of the history of the romance in his Introduction. This edition is also of 500 copies.

—A second edition of Dr. Otto Schrader's 'Sprachvergleichung und Urgeschichte,' revised and enlarged, has been made accessible to the English public through an excellent translation by Mr. F. B. Jevons, under the title of 'Pre-

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historic Antiquities of the Aryan Peoples' (Scribner & Welford). As we have just given at some length an account of the present state of the Aryan question in a notice of Canon Taylor's 'Origin of the Aryans,' we have only space now to call attention to the merits of this learned treatise, which approaches the subject by a combination of philological and archæological investigation. The work is divided into four parts. The first two are purely philological, and are devoted to the history of linguistic philology, and to an explanation of the method and the principles of criticism of research by means of language and history. The last two are archæological, and treat of the first appearance of the metals, especially among the Indo-Germanic peoples, and of the Primeval Period, considered under the several headings of animals and plants, agriculture, computation of time, food and drink, clothing, dwellings, traffic and trade, culture, including the prehistoric monuments, and especially the Swiss lake-dwellings, the family and the state, and religion. The concluding chapter is devoted to the question of the original home of the Aryans, in which the author finds the prehistoric place of union between the Eastern and Western Indo-Europeans in the South Russian steppes, about half-way up the Volga. An index of authors quoted, and complete indexes, by different languages, of all the various works cited, add greatly to the utility of this valuable and scholarly work.

—M. Édouard Rod began in the *Revue Bleue* of June 14 what promises to be a series of distinctly interesting articles under the title of "Les Idées Morales du Temps Présent." These articles will appear not consecutively, but at irregular intervals, and will be devoted to the opinions in regard to some great moral questions of several writers who, though their works may differ widely in respect of form, may be held to be in one way or another guides of modern thought. M. Rod seeks to find what solution such writers have given to moral problems like these: Do men depend on a supernatural power? Do they pursue an end, and, if so, what end? What is *le bien?* To what rule of conduct is one bound to submit his life? All these are questions which, he thinks, are coming back again more and more every year into the foreground of literature. There is one obvious danger that attends a task such as that which M. Rod attempts, and that is the risk of piecing together bit by bit a moral system out of passages gathered here and there from an author's work, and so furnishing him with a body of doctrine, a hard-and-fast morality, which he would not recognize as his own when he saw it. M. Rod, one is glad to see, perceives this danger clearly, and does his best to lessen it by a note of warning at the bottom of his first page. He will avoid as much as possible, he says, introducing any factitious cohesion between the ideas, often fragmentary and sometimes contradictory, of his authors. "Not one of them has a *morale* in the systematic sense of the word; what we must look for are opinions—sometimes even less than that, simple indications, uncertain *données*. Taken out of the body of his work, these indications and these *données* may perhaps take on a signification more doctrinal and more absolute than they really have in the author's thought." Whatever may be the measure of success that M. Rod attains in avoiding the risk that he points out, at the least he has treated his readers very fairly in apprising them of it and running up a danger signal.

BROWN'S BEGINNINGS OF KENTUCKY.

The Political Beginnings of Kentucky: A Narrative of Public Events bearing on the History of that State up to the Time of its Admission into the American Union. By John Mason Brown. Louisville: John P. Morton & Co., 1889.

In this monograph, published under the auspices of the Filson Club, the main thesis expounded by Littell in his 'Political Transactions in and concerning Kentucky, from the first settlement thereof until it became an independent State,' is reaffirmed, with the addition of new and valuable materials drawn from before unpublished letters, from the archives of the Spanish Government, from the colonial records of Canada, and from many other original sources. The tract of Littell, we learn, has become rare, and it was well to reëxamine its political point of view in a purely historical spirit. Instructive as it may be for the documents it preserves, and interesting as it certainly is for the cross-light it sheds on a critical period in our Western annals, it must yet take rank, in point of form, as a purely polemical pamphlet, compiled under the fervors of the controversy which came to a white heat at the West during the year 1806, when the manœuvres of Aaron Burr and the counter-irritants of his Federalist foes had stirred up afresh the live coals deposited at an early date in the ashes of Kentucky politics.

The elements of political history in Kentucky are vivid and picturesque beyond those of any other Western State, compounded as those elements are from heroic adventures peculiar to its early settlers, from wild forays and Indian raids on the border, from secret intrigues of Spanish and British emissaries, from popular discontents arising between the trans-Alleghany district and the parent State of Virginia, from factional fights in its home politics, from radical agitations nourished by its "Democratic Societies," and especially from that long struggle for the rights of independent Statehood which, in one phase or another, extended from 1782 to 1792, and which led to the formal assemblage of eight separate conventions. The traces of this chronic political unrest may be discerned in the over-ready sympathy that was given by certain of the Kentucky "patriots" to the Gallican propagandism of Genêt, to the nullifying "Resolutions of '98 and '99," and, at a later date, to the covert schemes of Aaron Burr, when, in 1806, that wily adventurer broke through all the toils that were set for him by Joseph Hamilton Daveiss, his Federalist prosecutor. And the traces of this same political unrest have been permanently preserved for us in the fierce polemic of Humphrey Marshall's 'History of Kentucky,' which, as published in 1812, did but give literary form and plausible logic to the extreme Federalist view of the transactions that marked the political beginnings of Kentucky.

It was contended by Marshall that the Republican founders of Kentucky were involved for years in some sort of guilty confederacy with the Spanish authorities at New Orleans or with the Spanish Minister at New York; that in pursuit of this confederacy, beginning, it may be, with temporary commercial arrangements, inspired by private gain, they had not scrupled, in the end, to plot with Spanish agents for the permanent political severance of the Western country from the States of the Atlantic border; that these disloyal plots were nurtured and sustained by Spanish bribes, and that their disastrous issue was defeated only by the resolute antagonism of a few faithful citizens who dragged the meditated treason into the light of day.

It is the aim of Col. John Mason Brown to show that these inculpations of Marshall are utterly without foundation. To this defensive purpose he is animated alike by a personal and by a patriotic motive. His distinguished ancestor, John Brown, was not only the honored friend of Jefferson and Madison, but was also called to play the foremost part in the political beginnings of Kentucky. He was Kentucky's representative in the Legislature of Virginia, her district delegate in the Continental Congress, her favorite counsellor in the primary assemblies of the people, and her chosen Senator for the first twelve years after the admission of Kentucky into the Union. The author of this monograph maintains that no man among the contemporaries who acted with John Brown in the early political transactions of Kentucky "ever knew or believed or suspected" that Brown or Innes, or any of those who followed their lead, "had ever entertained a thought other than that of entering the Union as a sovereign State, or a plan inconsistent with that thought." It is admitted that Brown, while a member of the Continental Congress, frequently had interviews with Gardoqui, the Spanish Minister, on the commercial and political relations of Kentucky with the Mississippi River; that Gardoqui offered alluring terms to Kentucky in case she would secede from Virginia and from the Federal Union; that Brown communicated these terms to confidential friends in Kentucky who were laboring to effect the separation from Virginia, and that some of those who engaged in this work of separation, such as Judge Sebastian and Gen. Wilkinson, were found to have been, at a later date, the stipendiaries of Spain. But it is maintained by the author that John Brown during all this time was friendly to the Union, as well in heart as in specific purpose, and that, if he forbore to publish and expose the enticements of Gardoqui, it was because of a reason approved by Madison, who feared that the premature publication of such seductive proposals from Spain might have a disturbing influence on the councils of the Kentucky people at a time when, more than ever, it was desirable to secure their allegiance to the new form of government which it was hoped to establish on the basis of the plan concerted by the Federal Convention of 1787. It is certain that Brown did confide the revelations of Gardoqui to Madison.

It seems to us that, without default to his defensive purpose, the author might have made his argument still more effective if he had not tried to prove too much with regard to the secret motives and ultimate aims of Brown and of those who acted with him in the political beginnings of Kentucky. The picture of the times here given is perhaps somewhat deficient in point of historical background and of historical perspective. It lacks what the artists of the brush technically call "atmosphere." The motives and aims of the men who founded Kentucky are put in the foreground, with too much of definition drawn from the light of a later period. The motives and aims which were proper enough in 1786 do not need for their justification to be squared at all points with the motives and aims which came to be of bounden obligation after our Federal Government was in the "full tide of successful experiment." In the year 1786, for instance, we find Madison writing that it had become a question whether it were "possible or worth while to preserve the Union of the States." A few months later, in view of the then menaced surrender of the right to navigate the Mississippi River, he

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asked whether it would be "an unnatural consequence" if the Western people, from interests of their own, "should consider themselves absolved from every Federal tie." Early in 1787 he thought there was much ground to apprehend that the ambition of individuals, mixing itself with the impulses of resentment and interest, would lead the inhabitants of the West to "set up for themselves." In the month of August, 1787, he wrote to Jefferson that there was good ground to believe that Spain was taking advantage of the disgust created in Kentucky by the proposed surrender of the Mississippi, and was endeavoring to seduce her people from the Union "by holding out a darling object which will never be obtained by them as a part of the Union." He added that this "is a fact as certain as it is important," though it was one which he could only hint "in strict confidence." So late as the month of March, 1789, he refers to Col. Morgan's colonizing scheme at "New Madrid" as being only a sequel of the Spanish plan "of making the Mississippi the bait for a defection of the Western people," and under the same date he expressly states that "some of the leaders in Kentucky are known to favor the idea of connection with Spain."

It is plain, then, that from 1786 to 1789 there was a Spanish plot in the air for the separation of Kentucky from the Union; that this plot was well known to Brown; that he communicated it to two of his confidential associates in Kentucky for their information and guidance; that Madison was well aware of it, not only from the communications of Brown, but also from the revelations made by Gardoqui to the other members from Virginia in the Continental Congress. Madison records that these delegates held "a free conversation" with the Spanish Minister in the month of March, 1787, on the relations of the Western Territory to the Mississippi River. The delegation informed Gardoqui that a "concerted occlusion" of the river, such as he demanded, would produce an unfriendly temper in the Western people "against both Spain and the United States," with the probable result of throwing the whole western country into the arms of Great Britain. The Spanish diplomatist, on his part, intimated to the Virginians, "with a jocular air," that the Western people might become "good Spanish subjects" for the advantages attached to that character; and, "with a serious air," that such an idea "had been brought forward to the King *by some person connected with the Western country*" (Madison Papers, vol. ii., pp. 599-601). It further appears from the correspondence of Madison at this epoch that the delegates from Virginia "entered into very confidential interviews" with Otto and De la Forest (the representatives of France near our Government), on the relations of the Mississippi to the Western people.

It will thus be seen that the head and front of Brown's alleged offending in this matter was merely part and parcel of a general agitation prevailing at that time in the councils of all who were interested in the navigation of the Mississippi River. No secret was made in any quarter concerning the possible issues that were dependent on the settlement of the question raised by Spain against the natural rights of the United States. When Brown communicated to his political friends the nature and purport of Gardoqui's overtures offering to the Kentuckians favorable terms of commercial intercourse in case Kentucky should secede from the Union, it is not clear, as Marshall inferred, that Brown favored the acceptance of the offer. Neither is it clear that he spurned the suggestion with indignation. It is probable that he preferred to practise in the premises a "masterly inactivity," and that he held the matter under advisement while waiting and watching the drift of events. In the very act of communicating the tempting offer of the Spanish Minister he made it plain to his correspondents that, for himself, he had "sanguine hopes" that the new Government about to be framed under the Constitution of 1787 "would answer the expectations of its friends." This certainly is not the language of a man who was in haste to sell out his country to Spain.

At the same time he did not allow his zeal for the Union to eat him up, or to eat up the offer of Gardoqui. He seems to have thought that a prudent *ménagement* was, for the time, a dictate of sound policy. In order to justify this cautious reserve, in the full light of all the surroundings in which he was placed, it does not seem necessary to blink any of the facts which may have put a stress on his prudence without putting a stress on his patriotism. It may even be contended that his political wisdom would rather gain than lose by crediting him with that large discourse of reason which looked before and after in the darkness and confusion of a troubled epoch. It is not clear to us that he was rather cunning than wise in all his dealings with Gardoqui. Yet the author prefers to believe that the contest between Gardoqui and Brown was a contest of wits; that Gardoqui was "deficient in perspicacity," and that, therefore, when called to confront new and complicated issues, he was "completely read and understood by the men whom he thought he was manipulating." This seems to us a little like forcing a verdict in favor of the defendant, when an honorable verdict might rather be claimed on a prima-facie view of the facts in the case, without resorting to any supposed ingenuity of Brown in "escaping the trap and fathoming the plan of Spain." The world is not so much governed by individual finesse as partial biographers are fain to assume. A natural political selection plays much the largest part in determining the logic of all great public events.

Very interesting in this treatise is the honorable place assigned by the author to the zealous efforts put forth by the primitive clergy of Kentucky to protect the State from a recognition of slavery in its organic polity. The Baptist preachers of this early period, for the most part illiterate men, are represented to have taken the lead in opposition to slavery, though they were ably reinforced by the learned David Rice, "the father of Presbyterianism in the West." So strong was the anti-slavery sentiment in the Constitutional Convention that it required all the persuasive eloquence and all the personal popularity of George Nicholas to outweigh the force of the moral objections urged by the minority against any toleration of the curse in the organic law. The slavery article was carried by a vote of twenty-six against sixteen, but in this minority "the religious opinion of the delegates," says the author, "was unanimous for abolition." Religious societies for the abolition of slavery continued to be formed in Kentucky as late as the year 1807. One of the Baptist societies, more happy in its object than in its choice of a name, was known as "The Baptized Licking-Locust Association, Friends of Humanity." In the end, however, as we know, a pro-slavery sentiment became dominant in the social institutes and political counsels of the State. It was not least among the evils of slavery that it tended to create a moral cowardice, if not a moral hypocrisy, in the presence of a system which was secretly felt to be wrong. A proof of the fact may be seen in the quick moral rebound of conscience, now that the weight of the system has been lifted from the South. A similar proof may also be found in the praise now so generously awarded to the early Abolitionists.

But for the untimely death of the respected author of this treatise, we might have ventured to hope that in a future edition he would not have been unwilling to set his story in that larger historical framework which seems to us more in keeping with his subject and with the spirit of his chosen epoch. Certain statements, too, call for some modification. It is not quite accurate to say that the Continental Congress "acquiesced" in Virginia's claim to her "back lands." A reference to the 'Thomson Papers,' as published by the New York Historical Society in its collections of 1878, would have checked the generality of this statement, and would have placed the early agitation of Kentucky for Statehood in a fierce light that has escaped the notice of the writer. The defence of the Kentucky worthies on the ground of contemporary public opinion would seem also to call for a more discriminating discussion in view of certain allegations found in such a familiar work as Clark's 'Proofs' of Gen. Wilkinson's "guilt," containing as that work does a letter from Joseph Hamilton Daveiss to President Jefferson, in which, under date of March 28, 1806, it is charged that Brown could not be damaged by the imputation of undue sympathy for Spain, because such a sympathy was universal in his party. In a second edition it would seem desirable that the Spanish originals of Gardoqui's letters should be published in the Appendix, and certainly it should not have been hinted that some of these letters contain insinuations against the political constancy of Richard Henry Lee and of Col. Henry Lee without giving more at length the exact text of the documents. We regret to say that this instructive monograph abounds with misprints "too tedious to enumerate," due, doubtless, to the fact that the learned author did not survive to read the proofs; but surely the "Printers to the Filson Club" should have taken enough care of the curious French original published in the Appendix to prevent it from reading, in spots, like a piece of typographical "pi," or like some uncouth variety of the Welsh tongue mitigated by a few stray vowels.

TWO BOOKS ON PALESTINE.

Palestine under the Moslems: A Description of Syria and the Holy Land from A. D. 650 to 1500. Translated from the Works of the Mediæval Arab Geographers by Guy Le Strange. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1890. 12mo, xxii, 604.

Palestine. By Maj. C. R. Conder, D.C.L., R.E. ["The World's Great Explorers."] Dodd, Mead & Co.

IN the first 378 pages of 'Palestine under the Moslems,' the history and topography of Syria and Palestine in general, and of the cities of Jerusalem and Damascus in particular, are treated in a connected form, though a great part of the matter is a pretty faithful translation (to judge by the style) of the Arabic writers. Twenty-two of these and two writers in the Persian tongue are named in the introduction, beginning with Ibn Khurdâdbih in 864, and closing with Mujîr ad Dîn in 1496. The second part (pp. 378-557) is an alphabetic list of places, with descriptions, references to the geographers, and the compiler's own surmises and those of other modern scholars as to identification. The last forty-six pages

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are an index of names, in which the Arabic spelling (in letters without vowel points) is added to many of the transliterated forms.

The author has adopted a plan of writing Arabic words and names, not uncommon among English Orientalists, which in a book not necessarily as dry as this might be denounced as pedantic; that is, he uses only the three vowels *a*, *i*, *u*, and, when lengthened, *â*, *î*, *û*, for the Arabic Fet'ha, Kesra, and Dhamma; thus presenting to us the now not quite unfamiliar *Muhammad*, *Makkah*, *Madînah*, always spelling the article *Al* for *El*, etc. If the book was written for Arabic scholars, Mr. Le Strange might have gone a step further, and distinguished the energetic consonants for *h*, *t*, *z*, *s*, *d*, and *k* from those representing the ordinary sounds, by a diacritical dot, as is often done even in popular works dealing with Arabdom. However, the equivalent in Arabic letters is given in the appendix for almost every geographic name found in the volume. The importance of the distinction lies in this, that the "energetic" *h*, *t*, *z*, *s*, *d*, and *k* represent quite different Hebrew letters from those represented by the non-energetic sound; for which reason, among others, Major Conder, himself a novice in Arabic, took good care to have every local name written out for him by a scholarly native.

The many versions of local legends, among which that of the Seven Sleepers is very fully treated, form the most readable part of the book. There are seventeen illustrations, mostly ground-plans of sacred buildings; a map of Palestine, on the authority of the Arab geographers; and a map of Jerusalem and its environs, referred to 985–1052. The plans are all drawn to a scale. Altogether, the aim of the writer seems to have been to exhibit his *Gründlichkeit*, a quality for which there ought to be a good English word, as Englishmen nowadays rival in this respect their German cousins.

Captain, now Major, Conder began his work under the auspices of the Palestine Exploration Fund in 1877, and was engaged upon it, with some intermissions, for no less than six years, taking in Judea, Samaria, Galilee, and the adjoining parts of Phœnicia and Syria, Moab and Gilead. His name has long been familiar to those interested in Biblical antiquities from the several reports, books, and magazine articles in which he from time to time gave the result of his observations and his opinions on controverted historic points. In the present volume the thread of the story follows his wanderings and adventures, as he leads his band of surveyors, with their theodolites and levels and chains, from town to town, and through desert and mountain defile, but is intermingled with a short account of all noteworthy monuments, from those set up by his fancied "Mongolian" rulers of the land in the days of Abraham to the last fastnesses and chapels of the crusaders. It is, moreover, adorned with discussions on history, ethnology, language, and what not. Maj. Conder came to Palestine without knowing a word of either Arabic or Hebrew. He learned both to qualify himself for his work, and acquired the spoken Arabic of to-day, as well as the literary tongue—the former well enough to lead his party without any interpreter into the desert of Moab and to work his way safely and peacefully, without passport or escort, among warring Bedouin tribes. Like all who have lived in Palestine long enough to put off the tourist, to feel at home among the unwonted scenes, and to converse with the natives in their own tongue, Maj. Conder affirms that no one who has not been on the spot can feel the full import of Bible story or of Bible poetry. Nor has he any confidence in the Bible criticism of men, like Kuenen or Wellhausen, who draw their conclusions only from printed books, or at best from old manuscripts and inscriptions; and he holds, as against the destructive views of their inharmonious school, a strong faith in the substantial truth of the Scriptural narrative. The principal result of his labors is summed up in two appendices, one of which gives the longitude and latitude, in degrees and minutes, of four hundred and forty places named in the Old Testament (towns, mountains, fords, springs, wells, etc.); the other fixing in like manner the position of fifty-five names of New Testament geography. Maj. Conder claims that one hundred and forty of these places were first discovered and identified by himself, and the positions of many others corrected.

West of the Jordan, with a Turkish escort, and with the protection of the British Government to back him, the work went on well enough; but when he crossed into Moab in 1881, the conditions were greatly changed. The Sultan no longer looked upon the British as his friends, his firman was withdrawn, and the British Government notified Capt. Conder that it would no longer answer for his safety. With great risk to his own life and the lives of his followers, he nevertheless persisted, till he had triangulated about one-eighth of the territory of Moab. From his researches as a surveyor and his careful comparison of Hebrew and of modern Arabic names, correctly spelled, he concludes that the topography of the Old Testament is genuine—that is, that the writers were acquainted with the places which they speak of, which, he says, is not the case with the author of the apocryphal Book of Tobit.

He professes, however, to be somewhat more than a surveyor: "I was taught the elements of geology by more than one specialist well known by name in England, and . . . I always felt the necessity of studying the structure and the mineralogy of every district which we visited." These studies led to the conclusion that the soil and climate of Palestine have not changed since the days of the Hebrew Commonwealth, except so far as the soil may have deteriorated by the neglect of man. In the Fellahin or peasants of western Palestine, he finds the descendants of the old Canaanites, and detected Hebrew words in their daily speech (of which he instances *goren*, the threshing floor, and *moraj*, threshing sledge), which are not given in any Arabic dictionary. He speaks of these Fellahin as lower in both mind and morals than the true Arabs, though he ascribes no very high character to the latter. He attests the well-known fact that there is very little of Islam in the men of the desert, and adds that the religion of the peasants also is but slightly removed from paganism, and blames the leading men of Mohammedan countries for their neglect of home missions. He also tells us, what is not generally known, that a nomad tribe near Beersheba, in the desert of Judah, goes by the name of *Jahalin* (the "Ignorant") for its utter disuse of any Mohammedan rites or customs.

Maj. Conder's favorite theory is that of the Turanian kinship of the Hittites (*Kheta* or *Khatu*), in which he is supported by Prof. Sayce. He regards it as an odd coincidence that the Turanian Turk should now rule over the land as the Turanian Hittite did in the days of Abraham. He states in a note to p. 241 that Hittite names of men and of places and words in a short bilingual inscription agree best with "a Turkic or Mongolic" dialect; and throughout his book he identifies Turanian and Mongolian with the utmost naïveté.

Among monuments none have interested him so much as the dolmens, of which he found and enumerates several hundred. He ascribes their origin both in Britain and in Palestine, at Stonehenge or on Mount Nebo, to the old Turanian inhabitants, and seeks to identify them with the *bamoth*, or high places, so often denounced by the prophets; and through these with the Greek βωμός (the Hebrew *bamah* is *bomoh* in Phœnician). Some of these dolmens, still standing on the hills of Moab, he thinks, might have been the altars set up by King Balak at the command of Balaam.

Major Conder has no patience with those who, like our own Col. Mallery, try to import savage superstitions, like the totem, into any age of Palestinian history. Major Conder tells us that he was in Bechuanaland between his first and his second sojourns in the Holy land; he knows what a totem looks like, and he found no trace of one in all Syria. We cannot agree with Major Conder's wholly unsupported assertion that the Hebrews of the First Commonwealth were not peasant proprietors, but held their lands as village communities, after the manner of Russia or India. Almost every book of the Bible bears testimony against this theory; and if we consider that among the crops of Palestine the date, the grape, and the olive are almost as important as wheat and barley, we see at once why individual ownership of land was a necessity. Even now, in many parts of Asiatic Turkey, it is common for a peasant to own a small clump or group of fruit trees with the ground on which they stand as the most valuable possession which he can hand down to his children. It was in the defence of his vineyard that Naboth lost his life, not of his wheat-field.

The book contains maps of Palestine, ancient, middle-age, and modern, physical and geological, but few other illustrations.

THE FABLES OF ÆSOP.

The Fables of Æsop, as first printed by William Caxton in 1484, with those of Avian, Alfonso, and Poggio, now again edited and induced by Joseph Jacobs. I. History of the Æsopic Fable; II. Text and Glossary. With full-page illustration by H. Ryland, and facsimiles of woodcuts in the original Caxton and from the Bayeux Tapestry. London: D. Nutt. [Bibliothèque de Carabas.] Two vols., 8vo, pp. xix, 283, 322.

ONLY a few months ago we reviewed at length Mr. Jacobs's valuable edition of Sir Thomas North's 'Fables of Bidpai,' in which he displayed remarkable ability in dealing with the complicated questions involved in the relation of Oriental to Occidental fables. We have now to notice another work in the same field by Mr. Jacobs, but of much wider range and more general interest.

It is seldom that so many important discoveries in any literary field have been made or suggested within the same space as in Mr. Jacobs's "History of the Æsopic Fable," prefixed to his reprint of the Caxton version of 1484. Although the Æsopic fable has been extensively discussed of late, no study of the entire field had been made before Mr. Jacobs's essay, and he has been able to gather up all the loose threads of his predecessors' work and weave them into a compact and brilliant web. The subject of fables has always been an attractive one to scholars, resting as it does almost entirely upon written literature, and thus differing essentially from the other related branches of folk-lore. The

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earliest European collection of fairy tales, for example, is not older than 1550, and the connection between this and earlier Oriental collections is purely a matter of theory. On the other hand, from their semi-popular nature, fables have closely preserved the first literary form which they received, and also the form of the collections into which they were early gathered. This renders the tracking of a given fable in modern European literature to its original Greek or Indian home, through intermediate mediæval collections, a task usually of no great difficulty, and one which has recently become a fashion in literary history.

Nevertheless, there still remained unsolved problems enough to attract the attention of scholars. Some of these were: the relation between Greek and Indian fables, the composition and relation of the early collections, and the mode of their diffusion during post-classical times and the Middle Ages. Besides these general questions there was a multitude of particular ones, such as the age and authorship of certain collections and the relation of some famous mediæval collections to each other. All these points have engaged Mr. Jacobs's attention, and it may be well to pass briefly in review the most important results of his labors, and then to add a few remarks of our own.

Mr. Jacobs considers that the fable was developed independently in two countries alone, Greece and India, and only a few of the oldest Greek fables which we possess show signs of Indian influence. Originally a part of folk-lore, the fable became literature in Greece because it was made the medium of conveying political lessons at a time when, under the Tyrants, free speech was dangerous. In India the same result was produced by the use of fables by the founder of Buddhism to impart moral lessons. In Greece this use is connected with the name of Æsop, about whom so little is known that it has been suggested that he is himself a fable. All we know of him is contained in a passage of Herodotus (II., 134), from which we gather that he flourished about 550 B. C., was a slave at Samos, and was killed, probably by a decree of the Delphic oracle, and that compensation for his death was claimed by the grandson of his master. The various fables afloat under his name were collected, to the number of about two hundred, by Demetrius Phalereus (300 B. C.), and this collection, with interpolations and revisions of the Alexandrine grammarians, was turned into Latin iambics by Phædrus, a Greek freedman of Augustus, in the early years of the Christian era.

The Indian fables appropriated by the early Buddhists were also associated with the name of a mythical sage, Kâsyapa, and were probably carried over to Ceylon in 241 B. C. along with the Jâtakas. Some hundred of these were brought by a Cingalese embassy to Alexandria about 50 A. D., translated under the title of 'Lybian Fables,' and attributed to Kybises. This collection, Mr. Jacobs says, seems to have introduced the habit of summing up the teaching of a fable in the moral, corresponding to the gâtha of the Jâtaka.

In the Roman world, to quote Mr. Jacobs, the two collections of Demetrius and "Kybises" were brought together by Nicostratus, a rhetor attached to the court of Marcus Aurelius. In the earlier part of the next century (about 230 A. D.), this *corpus* of the ancient fable, Æsopic and Lybian, amounting in all to some 300 members, was done into Greek verse with Latin accentuation (choliambics) by Valerius Babrius, tutor to the young son of Alexander Severus. Still later, towards the end of the fourth century, forty-two of these, mainly of the Lybian section, were translated into Latin by one Avian, with whom the ancient history of the fable ends.

During the Middle Ages some eighty of Phædrus's fables were turned into prose and attributed to a fictitious Romulus. Other collections based on Phædrus were made in Normandy and England, one of which, by Walter the Englishman, was metrical, and became, as Mr. Jacobs says, the standard Æsop of mediæval Christendom. The fables of Avian had a similar fate, the prose version being turned into Latin, and sent forth through Europe from England.

A new Oriental element was added to mediæval fables about 1220 by Marie de France, who attributed the new fables she translated to King Alfred. These really consisted of a selection from Babrius turned into Greek prose, with the addition of some 60 from the Oriental Bidpai and other sources, but still passing under the name of Æsop. Mr. Jacobs shows how this collection, containing 164 fables, was brought to England after the Third Crusade of Richard I., and translated into Latin by an Englishman named Alfred, with the aid of an Oxford Jew. Part of Alfred's Æsop was translated into English alliterative verse, and this was translated about 1220 into French by Marie de France, with the attribution just noted.

The subsequent fate of the Æsopic fable may best be told in Mr. Jacobs's own words (p. 217):

"With the invention of printing, the European book of Æsop was compiled by Heinrich Stainhöwel, who put together the Romulus with selections from Avian, some of the Greek prose versions from Ranuzio's translation, and a few from Alfred's Æsop. To these he added the legendary life of Æsop and a selection of somewhat loose tales from Petrus Alphonsus and Poggio Bracciolini, corresponding to the Milesian and Sybaritic tales which were associated with the fable in antiquity. Stainhöwel translated all this into German, and within twenty years his collection had been turned into French, English (by Caxton, the book before us), Italian, Dutch, and Spanish. Additions were made to it by Brandt and Waldis in Germany, by L'Estrange in England, and by Lafontaine in France; these were chiefly from the larger Greek collections published after Stainhöwel's day, and, in the case of Lafontaine, from Bidpai and other Oriental sources. But these additions have rarely taken hold, and the Æsop of modern Europe is in a large measure Stainhöwel's, even to the present day. Selections from it passed into spelling and reading-books, and made the fables part of modern European folk-lore."

Such is a mere outline of the results of Mr. Jacobs's investigation into the history of the Æsopic fable, and he is frank enough to warn his reader that about two-thirds of this short history of the fable consist of discoveries or hypotheses of his own which have not yet gone through the ordeal of specialist criticism. Whatever may be the result of this ordeal, it is likely that enough will stand to entitle Mr. Jacobs to an honorable rank among Æsopic investigators.

We have space to examine but a few points of Mr. Jacobs's introduction. On p. 162, note, he cites among English forms in Marie de France's French the word "*hus*, our 'house,' for 'door.'" This is surely the good old French word for 'door,' spelled variously *huis*, *uis*, *ois*, *hues*, *huix*, *hus*, *us*, from the Latin *ostium*, and in nowise connected with the English "house." On p. 184, Mr. Jacobs cites as a proof of the popularity of the fable in England its extensive employment in the popular literature of anecdote and sermon. The list which he gives might easily be enlarged by the addition of such names as John Felton (flourished about 1430), whose inedited sermons contain many fables. It is, however, to be borne in mind that the use of stories in sermons was universal from the thirteenth century on, and fables were largely employed by preachers in all countries. On page 194 reference is made to the paucity of Æsopic fables in modern collections of folk-tales, and it is suggested that collectors have neglected them as something of comparatively little interest. We are inclined to think that, in fact, fables are of rather rare occurrence among the people. In Italy, for example, only about a dozen have thus far been collected (Mr. Jacobs does not refer to these, although a number of Æsopic fables are among them; see Crane's 'Italian Popular Tales,' pp. 150, 353), and by persons not ignorant of the value of fables when found. On page 199 the 'Disciplina Clericalis' of Petrus Alphonsus (it should be Petrus Alphonsi, or better, Alfonsi, the name of the royal sponsor being assumed in the genitive to mark the spiritual relationship of the godchild) is mentioned as a collection of tales intended for seasoning to sermons, hence the name. The 'Disciplina Clericalis' was written at the end of the eleventh or the beginning of the twelfth century. Now, the use of stories in sermons was introduced by Jacques de Vitry (who died in 1240), and we are not aware of any collections of stories designed expressly for use in sermons before the end of the thirteenth century. There were, of course, earlier collections of moral tales, like Gregory's 'Dialogues' (written in 593–4), but not intended expressly for the use of preachers. In this connection should have been mentioned the moralization of fables introduced by Odo de Ceritona (Eude de Cheriton), and continued by Cyril and Nicholas of Pergamos in the 'Speculum Sapientiæ' and the 'Dialogus Creaturarum.'

Mr. Jacobs has some interesting pages (204 *et seq.*) upon the subject of the fable in general, its origin and diffusion. The history of the fable is followed by a synopsis of parallels, and only those who have done similar work can appreciate the enormous labor condensed into thirty-eight pages of fine print and rendered accessible by two indexes, one of fables and the other of the authors cited in the synopsis. Practically this part of Mr. Jacobs's work is a supplement to the invaluable notes of Oesterley to Pauli's 'Schimpf und Ernst' and Kirchhof's 'Wendunmuth,' works now exceedingly scarce. It would not be impossible to make numerous additions to the references in the synopsis; but Mr. Jacobs has done enough to entitle him to the gratitude of all his fellow-students. The Caxton reprint is provided with a convenient glossary, and the book is published, in a limited edition, in the same dainty style as the others of the series, and adorned with a charming etching by Mr. Ryland. Last, but not least, Andrew Lang tells in a prefatory poem how Æsop missed his great opportunity.

Tennis, Lawn-Tennis, Rackets, Fives. [Badminton Library.] Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

THE four divisions of this volume are edited by Messrs. J. M. Heathcote, C. G. Heathcote, E. O. P.-Bouverie, and A. C. Ainger—names well known in the different "courts" in which they practise—and they have called in to their assistance several other players, male and female, English and American, in order to make a symposium, after the fashion of the day, and give the public the benefit of their combined knowledge and experience.

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Although ball games are not referred to in the Scriptures, recent excavations in the neighborhood of Cairo have brought to light wooden and leather balls, evidently used in such games, which are believed to be 4,000 years old. In later times the Greeks and Romans played games of ball, but we are without any definite information as to the nature of these games. The early middle ages were enlivened by the French *jeu de paume* and the Italian *pallone*, so called because the ball was struck with the palms of the hands. Then, as society became more luxurious, gloves were used to protect the hands, and afterwards came the first rude form of racquet—a spoon-shaped basket, such as is still used in the game of *pelote* played in the Basque provinces. In the fifteenth century it occurred to some inventive genius to substitute for this basket, strapped to the arm, a "battoir," or battledore, made of parchment, with a wooden handle, and it is recorded that when these battoirs became fashionable, and the supply of parchment ran short, the makers—instigated thereto, no doubt, by the school-boy of the period—used precious classical manuscripts, obtained from persons ignorant of their value! Such is believed to have been the ignominious fate of the lost books of Livy.

From this time on, the game of tennis, still called in France *jeu de paume*, and in Italy *la palla*, was the favorite game in all the courts of Europe, and the "battoir" was succeeded by a racquet resmbling that now in use. By the time Henry VIII. built the tennis court at Hampton Court, about the year 1530, tennis had become the game of kings, if not the king of games, as its advocates love to describe it. Before this time, too, the various rules and customs of the game had become assimilated in different countries. In 1555 Messer Antonio Scaino, a priest and doctor of theology, published the 'Trattato della Palla,' giving the laws of the game as played in Italy, together with a history of *chases*, and in this book are found the terms "a due" and "vantaggio," which still survive in the modern "deuce" and "vantage." Shakspere often refers to tennis, making *Henry V.* say:

"When we have matched our rackets to these balls,
We will in France, by God's grace, play a set."

And Charles II. played tennis in the old Haymarket Court in London, which was still in use up to 1866. The game seems to have languished during the latter part of the last and the beginning of this century, perhaps because the young men were too busy fighting; but of late years it has taken a new lease of life, owing to the attention directed to it by the popularity of its offspring, lawn-tennis.

There are plenty of good reasons for the fascination which this venerable game exercises over the minds of its admirers. The exercise is not so severe as in racquets or lawn-tennis, and the game can be played at almost any age, while the *accuracy* of stroke, which is perhaps the most important element of success, is largely the result of practice, and can be attained by any one with unimpaired eyesight and a fairly strong wrist. When once the beginner has penetrated the mysteries of *chases*, which are simply lines marked on the floor of the court within one or other of which he must make the ball fall, and has learned how to *cut* the ball (Messer Scaino calls it *tagliare*) in order to make it difficult of return, he is well advanced on the road to success. Then he must cultivate a *cut* or *twisted* service, of which there are a good many varieties—indeed, a celebrated French player claimed that he possessed forty-two different ones, but so extensive a repertory is unnecessary; and, having reached this point, he will realize that the game is full of interesting possibilities.

He will find Mr. Heathcote an excellent adviser on all technical points, and if he follows his advice intelligently, he will go on improving until he exemplifies the truth of the old tennis adage: "A good player can generally get to the ball, and to a first-rate player the ball always comes." Before long the completion of the new court in Forty-third Street will give New Yorkers an opportunity of seeing the game played, of which they will doubtless avail themselves, for, as Mr. Heathcote remarks, "the Americans have recently taken up tennis with characteristic enterprise and spirit." This remark is fully justified by the fact that the tennis championship of the world has been held for the past five years by a citizen of Boston; and, to judge from the way in which Pettit defeated Saunders, the English champion, the other day, there is no immediate prospect of our being deprived of this honor. Mr. Heathcote finds fault with our players for having adopted a ball which is slightly slower than the English ball, and straightway recommends a ball made by one of the English makers, which is of less diameter than that called for by the rules given at page 62—an inconsistency which needs explanation.

In illustration of the natural blunders of the non-sporting part of the community, Mr. Heathcote says: "Most ladies believe that a ball struck horizontally over a net will bound off the ground vertically, while many statesmen and almost all lawyers shoot not in front of but straight at a bird flying across their line of vision." This sounds harsh, especially in view of Miss Dod's chapter on "Ladies' Lawn-Tennis" in the present volume; but, allowing for the usual exceptions, it must be admitted that the charge is not without justification. A certain Mlle. Margot is said to have played tennis in the fifteenth century in Paris, but, in spite of this historical precedent, and of Miss Dod's chapter aforesaid, it is the firm belief of most people who have had occasion to consider the matter, that the fair sex will never appear to great advantage in the lawn-tennis court. Ladies are badly handicapped in the matter of dress, and the increased exertion made necessary by this difficulty has, in many cases, done serious and permanent injury. Some exceptional young women may become senior wranglers and others may play excellent lawn-tennis, but they are more likely to succeed in the former direction than in the latter, and with less probability of suffering from the mental than from the physical strain. In 1888 Mr. Renshaw gave one of the English lady champion players the odds of 30 and another half 40, and he won on each occasion, showing how wide a difference exists between the best players of each sex.

The literature of lawn-tennis has become so extensive of late years that it is hardly possible to say anything new as to the origin, development, or best methods of playing the game. There is, therefore, very little in the lawn-tennis section of the present volume that calls for special mention except the excellent illustrations, many of which are from instantaneous photographs of well-known players, and the chapter giving useful information as to the best way of making the different kinds of courts. The game seems to hold its own all over the world, if the number of players is a fair test, and there is no doubt that the general standard of play is an improving one, even if that of the champion players is no higher than it was a few years ago. And yet the most enthusiastic lovers of the sport must admit that, by comparison with real tennis, the game of lawn-tennis is decidedly tame, lacking both variety and interest.

No historical or princely associations surround the origin of the game of racquets—or rackets, as it may also be spelled. On the contrary, it seems to have been first played in the Fleet prison at the beginning of this century, and was already an old game in that locality at the time of Mr. Pickwick's incarceration. It was afterwards played elsewhere, but always in open courts—that is, courts with only one wall; and it was after it had ceased to be played at the debtors' prison that the building of Prince's Courts, in 1853, introduced the modern game which is played in a four-walled court. It is a much faster game than either tennis or lawn-tennis, and for that reason can rarely be very well played by those who have lost the elasticity of youth; nevertheless, the connoisseurs who watched the games played in the New York court a few years ago will recall the successful efforts of at least one gentleman who had long passed the "mezzo del cammin di nostra vita." It is certainly a less interesting game than tennis, while on the other hand those who play both games will invariably prefer it to lawn-tennis, partly because it admits of harder hitting, and partly because of the difficulty of judging the angles made by the ball in the corners of the court.

The English game of fives, so called because the ball is hit with the hand or "bunch of fives," resembles the Irish game of hand-ball, and is no doubt the lineal descendent of the old "jeu de paume." The Eton game, which alone Mr. Ainger describes, is very complicated, and has no sufficient advantage over the plain-wall game to compensate for its needless detail. The simpler game is coming into vogue in our schools, and is an admirable exercise, as well as a good introduction to the more difficult court-games. It has, moreover, the great advantage of necessitating a comparatively small outlay in the construction of the court.

Lois françaises et étrangères sur la propriété littéraire et artistique, suivies des conventions internationales conclues par la France pour la protection des œuvres de littérature et d'art. Recueillies par Ch. Lyon-Cean et Paul Delalain. Paris. 1889. 2 vols., 8vo, lxvii, 568 pp.; xiv, 426 pp.

THE full title of this book, as set out above, will of itself indicate that it is an important work, while the names of the two editors—the one of wide experience in the study of comparative jurisprudence, and the other well known in the literature of literary property—are a sufficient guarantee that it has been compiled with accuracy and intelligence. The names of several of the collaborators, also, have already been included in the bibliography of copyright. That the work is a timely one, no one at all familiar with the growth of interest in this kind of legislation since the International Copyright Congress at Brussels in 1858 will doubt, and that it is now published under the auspices of the "Comité de Législation Étrangère" of the Société de Législation Comparée of Paris is, perhaps, but another proof that the French are not inclined to surrender their lead in the study of comparative legislation. A striking illustration of the more recent advance of interest in literary property is the fact that, of the thirty-three countries included in this work which have passed distinct statutes for the protection of literary and artistic productions, ten, or nearly one-third of them, have enacted such laws within

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the past four years, nineteen since 1879, and twenty-two, or two-thirds of the whole number, since 1876.

The introduction, by M. Lyon-Cean, is a thorough piece of work, giving (1) a brief history of the growth of copyright legislation, and (2) a careful analysis of the statutes actually included in this collection, in such wise that under any particular topic, such as "The Duration of Copyright," "Formalities Required," "Protection Accorded to Musical Compositions," "Translations," etc., there may be found a statement of the actual statutory provisions of each country relating thereto, showing where they correspond or in what particulars they differ. Besides the introduction, the first and bulkiest volume contains the laws of the various States of Europe. Of these, three alone—France, Germany, and Great Britain—fill 234 pages, or a little more than 40 per cent. of the whole volume, Great Britain occupying 117 pages, or exactly the same space as France and Germany together. In the case of this last country, it is not the multiplicity of her laws, but their length, which has called for space. The German statutes are but three in number, viz., the law of June 11, 1870, concerning literary works, and the laws of January 9 and 10, 1876, the first protecting works of the fine arts and the second photographs. Under France, on the contrary, no less than twenty-six laws, ordinances, and decrees, dating from 1791 to 1887, are set out as being now in force, while the British statutes are nineteen in number, covering even a more extended period, namely, from 1734 to 1888. Certainly the proposals, urged in both countries, to codify these laws recommend themselves. In some other countries the laws were enacted so long ago that revisions are very desirable and even imperative. Thus, Greece has still to depend upon the provisions of her penal code of 1833; but in 1880 efforts were made to enact a new, codified copyright law, and a bill for that purpose was drawn up. Rumania has no provision for the protection of literary works other than a chapter in her statute of 1862 controlling the press, and Portugal has no enactment since the civil code of 1867; while the law of Austria, which dates back to 1846, although a liberal law for that time, would now bear revision. Servia and Turkey, and the diminutive republic of San Marino, are as yet without copyright legislation.

The second volume contains the copyright statutes of the remaining countries of the world, Japan, with its law of 1887, representing Asia, while three African States are included—Tunis, the Republic of South Africa, and Egypt. The last-named country has no statutory enactment upon the subject of literary property, but, according to one of the articles of the regulations governing the mixed courts, to the effect that in case of the silence or insufficiency or obscurity of the law, judgments are to conform to the principles of natural right and equity, the Court of Appeals of Alexandria has rendered four decisions, which are included in the volume as precedents virtually governing literary and artistic property in the absence of a statute. Besides the United States, the Western Hemisphere is represented by the Central and South American States, and Hayti and Oceanica by the Hawaiian Islands, the latter having passed a copyright law on June 23, 1888. In addition, the volume contains the text of the Berne International Copyright Convention, with an introductory sketch by M. Louis Renault; all the copyright treaties to which France has been a party; and, as an appendix, a French translation of the South American International Copyright Treaty. Finally, there is an excellent index.

The work is not an absolutely complete collection of the copyright legislation of the world. The British colonial laws are entirely excluded (except that the Canada Act of 1875 is entered under Great Britain), and in the case of some countries statutes are omitted which may still have some force of law; for example, under Denmark, in which country at least eight enactments previous to that of December 29, 1857 (the first one included in the book), are still partly in force. For the sake of completeness, also, the special Danish laws relating to Iceland should have been printed, as well as the sections relating to literary property of the Swedish law of 1812, on the freedom of the press, while for the sake of historical completeness the famous "Konkordat" of 1857, between the different Swiss cantons, might well have been included in the chapter devoted to Switzerland. Perhaps the International Copyright Bureau at Berne may at some future time see its way clear to prepare and print a work which shall include all the copyright legislation, past as well as present, of the whole world, a production which would be fully justified by the present intelligent interest in literary and artistic property.

The inclusion of copyright in the subjects for discussion by the Pan-American Conference, and the recommendation of the Copyright Committee of that body that the United States should join the Montevideo treaty, adds special interest at this time to that part of the work which relates to the Central and South American States. Of these countries the following have passed codified copyright statutes: Chili, July 24, 1834; Peru, November 3, 1849; Mexico, 1871, as a chapter in its civil code; Bolivia, August 13, 1879; Guatemala, October 29, 1879; Colombia, October 26, 1886; Venezuela, May 12, 1887; Ecuador, August 3, 1887; while the civil and penal codes of the Argentine Republic and Brazil provide, though not very adequately, against piracy. The civil codes of Honduras (1880), Salvador (1880), and Uruguay (1868) contain exactly similar provisions, to the effect that intellectual productions are the property of their authors, and that this property is to be regulated by special laws; but neither country seems to have passed such special laws. The Peruvian Constitution of 1860 declares intellectual property to be inviolable, and Paraguay, in its Constitution of 1870, gives every author an exclusive property in his productions "during the period fixed by law," but has, apparently, never passed any law fixing the duration of the property right. Costa Rica and Nicaragua seem to be entirely without legislation upon this subject, but the island of Hayti passed a favorable copyright act on October 8, 1885. The five republics of Central America joined, on February 17, 1887, in a treaty of peace and commerce, of which one article guarantees the protection of literary property, but this convention seems never to have come into force. From August 25, 1888, to February 18, 1889, a South American Congress of private international law held thirty-five sessions at Montevideo, and discussed among other things a project for a convention for the protection of works of literature and art, and this was signed on January 11, 1889, by the Argentine Republic, Bolivia, Brazil, Chili, Paraguay, Peru, and Uruguay. It is this convention which the Pan-American Congress recommended the United States to enter.

Briefe und Erklärungen von I. von Döllinger über die Vaticanischen Decrete 1869 1887. Munich: C. H. Beck. 1890. Pp. v., 163.

Leo XIII., soon after his accession to the seat of St. Peter, endeavored to make good the mistake of his predecessor, and invited the excommunicated Döllinger to visit him in the Vatican, intimating that a new and more liberal spirit would be found prevailing there. Döllinger respectfully declined the friendly overture, with the remark that a mere change of persons in the Pontificate could hardly be expected to produce a change of principles. Repeated efforts were made to force him back into the fold by a Jesuitical *coup de main*—that is, by circulating reports of his contemplated or secretly consummated submission. In 1886 Döllinger expressed his intention of publishing a pamphlet reaffirming his views concerning Papal infallibility, and arraying against it a serried phalanx of facts and arguments—*aciem argumentorum et factorum instructam* — such as had hitherto not been brought into the field of controversy in a compact body. The title of this pamphlet was to be 'The Vatican Decrees in the Light of History.' It was to contain, among other things, a survey of the dogmatic history of the Papal See from its origin until the present day, in which all important *decreta fidei et morum* issued by the Popes were to be adduced and critically discussed.

This work, which was to have been written in the form of letters to a prelate, was never executed. Only a few preliminary notes bearing upon it were found among the posthumous papers of the deceased. The present volume is an attempt to carry out, so far as it is now possible, the original purpose of Dr. Döllinger, and may, therefore, be regarded as a substitute, however imperfect, for the book which, in the last years of his life, he had so much at heart, but unfortunately never found time to put on paper. It consists of twenty-eight letters in all, most of which have appeared at various dates in different periodicals; others, such as those to and from the Papal nuncio, Ruffo Scilla, the Archbishop Antonius von Steichele, and "a lady of high rank," are now printed for the first time. Very earnest and very naïve are the two letters in which the lady aforesaid entreats the illustrious scholar to put aside his pride of learning and save his soul from "an eternity of indescribable torment' by a penitential return to the bosom of the Church. With admirable delicacy and tact, Dr. Döllinger lets himself down to the intellectual level of his correspondent, and makes his standpoint so clear that one would think even the rather limited and religiously fanaticized intelligence of her Royal Highness might recognize the impossibility of a recantation. Peculiarly interesting is the letter of the nuncio, who took occasion of the Pope's jubilee to express the joy it would excite in the heart of the Holy Father to be able to celebrate the solemn feast "with the well-beloved son at his side." In his reply to this letter Döllinger says that the prelates all agreed in excusing themselves for submitting to the decision of the Council on the ground that they did not wish to produce a schism. "I, too," he adds, "am not willing to be a member of a schismatic society; I am isolated. Persuaded that the sentence hurled against me is unjust and legally null and void, I persist in regarding myself as a member of the great Catholic Church, and it is the Church itself which tells me, through the mouth of the holy fathers, that such an excommunication cannot harm my soul."

In a letter addressed to Pastor Widmann,

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and dated October 18, 1874, Döllinger states that he belongs from conviction to the Old Catholic communion, which he must, therefore, have held to be a body not separated from the Catholic Church. But it is not easy to see how this connection can be harmonized with the confession of his isolation. Indeed, he seems to have been, to a certain degree, in the difficult and quite untenable position of a Mugwump who claims to belong still to the Republican party, although temporarily semi-detached in consequence of excessive corruption in the main body. The following incisive paragraph in the letter to the nuncio deserves to be quoted:

"And here, Monseigneur, I permit myself to cite a characteristic fact. When the Archbishop, obeying, as he said, the orders of the Pope, communicated to me the sentence pronounced against me, he announced that I was subject to all the pains and penalties heaped upon the excommunicated by canonical law. The first and most important of these penalties is contained in the famous bull of Pope Urban II., which decides that any one may justly kill an excommunicate, provided he does it through zeal for the Church. At the same time, he caused sermons to be preached against me in all the pulpits of Munich, and the effect which these declamations produced was such that the Chief of Police warned me that assaults upon my person were being plotted, and that I should do well not to go out unattended. Might I venture to raise the question, Monseigneur, whether, in case of my submission, I should be obliged to declare to the world that I deem this decision of an infallible Pope to be in perfect conformity with the morality of the Gospel?"

The value of this little volume consists chiefly in the fact that it furnishes a complete refutation of the doctrine of Papal infallibility, not from a rationalistic, but from a strictly orthodox-Catholic point of view. It shows conclusively that the Vatican decrees, when tested by the principle *quod semper, quod ubique, quod ab omnibus*, which the Romish Church has made the criterion of dogma, have not the slightest foundation to rest upon. The topics here discussed may seem somewhat antiquated, but in Bavaria, and indeed in all Germany, they still belong to the vital questions of the day, and possess something more than an academical or purely historical interest. The Vatican decrees of 1870 are the fundamental planks in the political platform of the Ultramontane party of 1890; and Prof. Reusch, in collecting and publishing these 'Letters and Declarations' of his deceased friend and fellow-laborer, has done an excellent work and most opportune to the needs of his countrymen.

Outlines of Jewish History, from B. C. 586 to C. E. 1890. With three maps. By Lady Magnus. Revised by M. Friedländer. Philadelphia: The Jewish Publication Society of America. 1890. 8vo, pp. xxi, 388.

THE first volume issued by the Jewish Publication Society of America is a revised edition of Lady Magnus's 'Outlines of Jewish History.' The new matter consists of three chapters on the Jews of North America and South America, Theodore Reinach's chronological tables of Jewish history, and a frontispiece representing the Temple of Jerusalem as reconstructed by Herod.

We doubt whether there is in the English language a better sketch of Jewish history than the one before us. Though evidently intended primarily for the young, the book contains much that will interest older readers. This is particularly true of the closing chapters, which, notwithstanding their brevity, contain the best and fullest account of the Jews in America that has ever been published. The mistakes pointed out by Dr. Neubauer, in the *English Historical Review* (January, 1887), ought to have been corrected in this edition. There are several other minor errors not noticed by Dr. Neubauer. It is wrong to say that the Jews are mentioned in the Saxon Chronicles (p. 165); and it is misleading to state that the Jews summoned to Parliament in 1240 were M. P.'s (p. 175). The massacre of the Jews of York took place in 1190, not 1189 (p. 170). The account of the mediæval Jews of England should have contained at least a few words concerning one of their most important institutions, namely, their Exchequer.

But in passing judgment on this book, we feel more inclined to commend than to condemn. The Jewish Publication Society is to be congratulated on the successful opening of its career. The society intends to publish a great variety of books for the purpose of elevating the intellectual condition of the Jews in America. Such a movement, so auspiciously begun, deserves the hearty support of the public.

Warpath and Bivouac, or the Conquest of the Sioux. By John F. Finerty. Chicago. 1890.

To write an unsensational but truthful and spirited account of savage campaigns is no light achievement, but it has been done by the author, who represented the Chicago *Times* in the Indian field in 1876 and 1879. If this stirring narrative is read as it deserves, the people will learn of hardships and peril encountered by their military forces that not one in a hundred thousand ever dreams of. The historian accompanied Crook on his Big Horn expedition, and, as there is no rear in an Indian fight, was in the thick of it on the Rosebud when Crook and the Sioux mutually recoiled. Within the next ten days the same savage foe overwhelmed Custer not more than twenty miles away. What is known as the Sibley scout, a reconnoissance of about thirty men that fell in with an overwhelming war party in the Tongue River country, is perhaps the most thrilling episode described.

Mr. Finerty writes clearly, and evidently has an ancestral love of fighting from the facility with which he takes his place in the ranks. But he never boasts. The wider lesson of the book is the part played by the army in opening for settlement, and what subsequently became civilization, the vast ranges of the Northwest. There are many excellent illustrations of general and other officers.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bellamy, C. J. Were They Sinners? Springfield, Mass.: Authors' Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Dedekind, J. Die Achten-Lini. Brunswick: Benno Goerits.
Garnett, Lucy M. J. The Women of Turkey and their Folk-Lore: The Christian Women. London: David Nutt.
Harland, Marion. With the Best Intentions. Chas. Scribner's Sons. $1.
Inagaki, M. Japan and the Pacific. Scribner & Welford. $2.
Janvier, T. A. The Aztec Treasure-House; a Romance of Contemporaneous Antiquity. Harper & Bros.
Johnson, J., and J. H. The Patentee's Manual. Longmans, Green & Co.
Johnson, S. Theodore Parker. Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Co.
Kiddle, H. Text Book on Physics. Wm. Wood & Co.
Littell's Living Age, April-June, 1890. Boston: Littell & Co.
Macray, W. D. Annals of the Bodleian Library. 2d ed. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Marmier, X. Au Sud et au Nord. Paris: Hachette & Cie.
Masson, Prof. D. Collected Writings of Thomas De Quincey. New ed. Vol. IX. Political Economy and Politics. Macmillan & Co. $1.25.
Napier, Mrs. Alexander. Johnson's Lives of the Poets. 3 vols. Scribner & Welford. $4.20.
Osborne, D. The Robe of Nessus. Belford Co.
Papillon, T. L., and Haigh, A. E. Virgil: Æneid, Books I—III. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 75 cents.
Ptolemy, G. W. B. Religion, the Curse of the World. Free Thought Pub. Co.
Pyat, F. The Rag-Picker of Paris. Boston: Benj. R. Tucker.
Saltus, F. S. Shadows and Ideals. Buffalo: Charles Wells Moulton.
Scudder, H. E. Short History of the United States of America. Taintor Bros. & Co.
Seawell, Molley E. Throckmorton. D. Appleton & Co. 50 cents.
Sellin, F. Poesias. New York: A. Da Costa Gomez.
Shaffer, Virginia C. How to Remember History. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.
Shillaber, B. P. Mrs. Partington's New Grip-Sack, filled with Fresh Things. J. S. Ogilvie.
Sidney, Margaret. Five Little Peppers Midway. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.50.
Sparks, Rev. F. Longman's School Trigonometry. Longmans, Green & Co.
Stanley, H. M. In Darkest Africa. 2 vols. Chas. Scribner's Sons.
Stevens's Facsimiles of MSS. in European Archives relating to America, 1773–1783. Vol. IV. London: B. F. Stevens.
Stephen, L., and Lee, S. Dictionary of National Biography. Vol. XXIII. Gray—Haighton. Macmillan & Co. $3.75.
Stockton, F. R. The Merry Chanter. The Century Co. 50 cents.
Storr, F. Exercises in French Syntax. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Sutton, J. B. Evolution and Disease. Scribner & Welford. $1.25.
Sweet, H. A Primer of Spoken English. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 90 cents.
Symonds, J. A. Essays Speculative and Suggestive. 2 vols. Scribner & Welford. $6.75.
The *Critic*, Jan.-June, 1890. The *Critic* Publishing Co.
The Finding of the Gnosis. Boston: Occult Publishing Co.
Thornton, J. Advanced Physiography. Longmans, Green & Co.
Thurston, R. H. Reflections on the Motive Power of Heat. John Wiley & Sons.
Totten, C. A. L. Yale Military Lectures. New Haven: The "Our Race" Publishing Co.
Toxar. Longmans, Green & Co.
Unwin, W. C. The Elements of Machine Design. Part I. Longmans, Green & Co.
Vance, S. G. Lord Healey, and Other Poems. Marshalltown, Ia.: S. G. Vance.
Vaughn, C. J. The Epistle to the Hebrews. Macmillan & Co.
Vincent, F. In and Out of Central America. D. Appleton & Co.
Ward, R. H. Plant Organization. Boston: Ginn & Co. 85 cents.
Warner, F. Mental Faculty. Macmillan & Co. 90 cents.
Wenckebach, Carla. Deutsche Litteraturgeschichte. D. C. Heath & Co. 55 cents.
Westerkamp, Dr. J. B. Das Bundesrecht der Republik der Vereinigten Niederlande. Marburg: N. G. Elwert.
Wetz, Dr. W. Shakespeare vom Standpunkte der vergleichenden Litteraturgeschichte. Worms: P. Reiss; New York: Gustav E. Stechert.
Wharton, E. R. Etyma Latina. London: Rivingtons.
Wheeler, A. C. The Toltec Cup. Lew Vanderpoole Publishing Co. 75 cents.
Whistler, J. McN. The Gentle Art of Making Enemies. John W. Lovell Co. $2.00.
White, Caroline E. Love in the Tropics. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
White, Eliza O. Miss Brooks. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Wiggs, Anna A. Hayne Home. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
Wilbor, Elsie M. Delsarte Recitation Book and Directory. New York: Edgar S. Werner. $1.25.
Wilson, Sir C. Lord Clive. Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
Ziegler, T. Sittliches Sein und Sittliches Werden. Strassburg: Karl J. Trübner.

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